

THE
INDIAN BOYS'
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

BY
LALIT MOHAN RAY, M.A., B.L.
*Of the Shree Vishuddhimantra Saraswat
Vishwavidyalaya, Calcutta*

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THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



Then Most Gracious Majesties
King-Emperor George V & Queen-Empress Mary

PREFACE

English history now forms a subject of study only in the Third and Fourth classes of our High English schools. There are, however, numerous text-books on the subject in use in High English schools, and an addition to their number may therefore appear to be superfluous, requiring an explanation. During my career as a teacher, I have felt that a connected but short history of the growth of England, written in a simple and lucid style and suited to the capacity of the tender boys of those classes, is a desideratum, and many teachers of long experience, whom I have consulted on the subject, have also expressed the same view. The object of this little book is to meet the requirements of those little boys, but how far I have succeeded in my attempt it is not for me to say. To add to the usefulness of the book I have included the contemporaneous Indian events at the end of each chapter, and have inserted the genealogies of the royal families of England to illustrate some difficult points of succession.

I am indebted to several of my friends for the valuable help they rendered me in bringing out this book, and I take this opportunity of expressing my sincere thanks to all of them.

My warmest thanks are also due to Babu Ramjadu Bhattacharyya, retired Assistant Headmaster of the Hindu School and present Principal of the Shree Vishuddhananda Saraswati Vidyalaya, who ungrudgingly gave me the benefit of his unique experience in the preparation of this book.

January, 1915

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The book has been thoroughly revised, considerably enlarged and brought up to date. To increase the usefulness of the book and to make it more interesting, several illustrative stories, poems and anecdotes have been inserted in this edition. Another useful feature of the book in this edition is the introduction of marginal notes, two valuable Appendices and a general Index. I once more take this opportunity to express my gratitude to those gentlemen who have assisted me in compiling this book or in passing it through the press.

December, 1919

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THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



AN OUTLINE MAP

OF

THE BRITISH ISLES.

Indian Boys' History of England.



Introduction.

The British Empire—India, the land we live in, forms a part of the British Empire, the largest Empire on the face of the globe. This Empire is spread over all the continents, and over all the seas and oceans of the world. The sun never sets upon this Empire. It includes more than one-fifth of the total land-surface of the globe, and its population is more than one-fourth of the total inhabitants of the world. The centre of this magnificent Empire is a group of islands, off the north-west coast of Europe, better known as the British Isles.

The British Isles consist of two large and a great number of smaller islands. The two largest are Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain includes England, Scotland and Wales. Great Britain is parted from Ireland by the Irish Sea and St George's Channel. On its eastern side, the North Sea, and on its Southern side, the English Channel cut it off from the mainland of Europe.

The Physical Features of England—England forms by far the larger part of the Island of Great Britain. The coast line of England is so deeply hollowed out by bays and inlets, so cut in and indented by long arms of the sea, that ships find safe places for landing or loading goods on almost any part of her coast. She has many large navigable rivers, the chief of which are the Thames, the Severn, and the Humber. She has very few mountains, except in the north and in the west. The centre, east and south of England form a large plain, crossed by gently sloping hills. Her soil is very fertile, and yields abundant corn. Her forests too, teem with numerous oak, elm and beech trees. England is the greatest mining country in the world. The most important minerals found in England are coal, iron, copper, lead, zinc and tin, and these are the chief sources of the wealth of the country. England enjoys, on the whole, a temperate and healthy climate, which has caused the people to be strong, energetic and enterprising.

Influence of Physical Features on the History of the Country—The long and deeply indented coasts of

England have brought into existence a large number of splendid ports—the eastern ports, such as London and Hull, trading with Europe and the East, the western, such as Liverpool and Bristol, trading with

Superiority of English commerce due to her long and indented coast line

the New World and the West. Thus the commerce of England is greater than that of any other country in the world. The beds of coal and iron, which lie beneath her soil, have also helped her to hold the first place among the nations noted for manufacture. Guarded on all sides by seas, England requires neither large armies nor strong fortifications to secure her from foreign invasions. So runs the poet's song—

Greatness of
English manu-
facture

“Britannia needs no bulwarks,
No towers along the steep,
Her march is o'er the mountain-waves,
Her home is on the deep
With thunders from her native oak
She quells the flood below”

This insular position of England has undoubtedly helped her to grow, in course of time, into the first rate naval power in the world. Her navy has not only served as a means of defence, but has also helped to extend Great Britain's supremacy over half the world.

Naval and
colonial supre-
macy

CHAPTER I.

England before the Roman Conquest.

The primitive people of Britain —In ages long gone by, the country in which the English people live, was not called England. It was at that time known as

Britain The primitive people that dwelt there were not civilized. They lived in caves and dense forests with wild animals which they used to kill with roughly made weapons of stones. These men are known in

The Palæolithic Men

history as Palæolithic Men or Men of the Old Stone Age In course of time they were succeeded by another race of men

who could make better stone weapons They are

The Neolithic Men

known as Neolithic Men or Men of the New Stone Age The period is called the Stone Age, for then the use of metal

was unknown to the people, and stone was used for the making of tools and weapons

To these succeeded, in after ages, a race of men known as the Celts The Celts were a

The Celts

branch of the Aryans, the forefathers of the high-caste Hindus, the Greeks, the

Romans and other civilized nations of the world The Celts who came to live in Britain were called Britons

They lived in small huts made of thin branches of trees They were divided into numerous tribes, each of which had its own chief or king. They tilled the land and cultivated corn Though the Celts could not read or write, they were civilized enough to know the use of metals, both for weapons and ornaments The higher classes among them used to carry on trade in tin, lead, corn and slaves with the other nations of Europe They were heathens, and their

priests, called Druids, were the lawgivers and the teachers of the people. Their religion was not free from cruel and barbarous practices. They even offered human sacrifices to their gods. From these Celts, the Scottish, Irish and Welsh people are mainly descended

Contemporaneous Indian Events—In the early ages of the world, when Britain was steeped in the darkness of ignorance, India enjoyed the honour of being one of the civilized countries of the East. Her civilization, it is said, dates as far back as four thousand years before Christ, when the Rîg-Veda, the earliest literature of the Aryan-Hindus, was composed. Her political history, however, runs from the Sixth Century B C, when the kingdom of Magadha (modern Behar) rose to prominence under the Sisunagas. The greatest of the Sisunagas was Ajatsatru who conquered the kingdom of Kosala (modern Oudh). The Sisunaga dynasty was afterwards overthrown by the Nandas. Alexander the Great, King of Macedon, invaded India in the reign of the last Nanda King in 327 B C, and succeeded in conquering the greater portion of the Punjab. Alexander left India in 325 B. C. Three years later, a new dynasty, known as the Maurya dynasty, was established at Magadha, in the place of the Nanda dynasty, by Chandragupta Maurya, a kinsman of the last Nanda

Ancient
Britain and An
cient India con
trasted

Sisunaga
Dynasty,
B C 600—372

Nanda Dynasty
B C 372—322

Maurya Dynasty,
B C 322—184

Chandragupta,
 the first great
 Hindu Emperor
 of Northern
 India

king He soon became the master of the
 whole of Northern India. In the Court
 of Chandragupta the Great, the famous
 Greek ambassador Megasthenes resided
 for about five years and left a valuable account of India
 The grandson of Chandragupta Maurya was the far-
 famed Asoka the Great who became, after
 his accession, a convert to Buddhism
Asoka the Great,
 one of the
 greatest kings
 of India

He made Buddhism the state religion,
 and sent missionaries to several countries
 for its propagation The Maurya dynasty showed
 signs of decay after the death of Asoka the Great,
 and the dynasty came to an end in 184 B C The
 last Maurya king was deposed and killed by his general
Mitra Dynasty,
 B C 72—27

Pushyamitra who secured the throne for
 himself His dynasty, called the Mitra
 Dynasty, was in turn overthrown by the Kanvas who
 assumed power in 72 B C

CHAPTER II.

The Roman Conquest of Britain.

Julius Cæsar's First Invasion of Britain, B C 55 —
 Two thousand years ago, the Romans, the forefathers
 of the modern Italians, were the bravest and most
 civilized people in Europe They had conquered a great
 part of Europe and part of Asia and Africa. One of their

most celebrated men, named Julius Cæsar, was a great general as well as an able writer. It is chiefly from a book of his, called the *Commentaries* of Cæsar, that we get the first historical account of Britain. This great Roman general had, for some years before B C 55, been engaged in conquering Gaul, which is now called France. The Celts of Britain helped their kinsmen in Gaul in their resistance to Rome. To punish the Britons, Julius Cæsar, invaded Britain in 55 B. C. He landed in Kent near the present town of Deal. The Britons so bravely opposed him that he was forced to return to Gaul, without achieving any success.

Julius Cæsar's Second Invasion, B C 54 — In the following summer, Cæsar came again to Britain with a large army. One of the British chiefs, named Cassibelan, opposed him on the north bank of the Thames. Cæsar, however, burnt his stronghold, defeated him in battle, and compelled him to submit. He then went back to Gaul after imposing a tribute on the Britons, which was never paid.

Later Roman Invasions and Conquest — After Julius Cæsar's invasion, the Romans did not molest the Britons for about a century. In 43 A D, however, the Roman Emperor Claudius sent an army for the conquest of Britain. The Britons tried their utmost to save their country from falling into the hands of the Romans, but in vain. Britain was at that time composed of several small kingdoms which were taken by the

Romans one by one. A British chieftain, Caractacus
 Caractacus. by name, fought very bravely against the
 Romans. But in 51 A. D. he was defeated
 and taken prisoner. When he was being carried through
 the streets of Rome, lined with beautiful houses and
 temples, he is said to have cried out, "Alas, how can
 a nation possessing such riches covet my humble
 cottage in Britain?" After this, when led before
 Claudius, he spoke with such manly bearing that
 the Emperor immediately set him free. Some years
 later, Queen Boadicea, the widow of a chief who
 ruled over the part of Britain now known as
 Norfolk and Suffolk, being cruelly treated by the
 Romans, headed a great revolt. She destroyed several
 Roman towns and strongholds in Britain, but after
 Queen Boadicea her defeat in 61 A. D., she put an end
 to her life by taking poison. The man
 who really conquered Britain was Julius Agricola who
 was its governor from 78 to 84 A. D. He was a
 wise statesman, and did all he could to civilise the
 Britons and make them happy. The Romans, however,
 could not subdue the Picts and Scots, dwelling on the
 northern part of the island, now called Scotland. To
 keep them back, Emperor Hadrian built a high wall in
 121 A. D., stretching from the Solway Firth to the
 mouth of the Tyne.

Effect of the Roman Conquest.—The Roman conquest was a blessing to Britain, as it brought her in contact with a civilized nation of Europe. The Romans

soon taught the Britons how to read and write. They encouraged trade and improved agriculture. They taught the people how to build houses with bricks and stones. They built several large and splendid towns like London and York. They made a large number of good roads. They also gave a good system of law to the Britons.

During the Roman occupation of Britain, Christian missionaries came and introduced Christianity. In short, the Romans did all they could to make the Britons wiser and happier.

Withdrawal of the Romans, 410 A. D.—The Roman occupation of Britain lasted for more than three hundred and fifty years. In 410 A. D., the Romans withdrew from Britain in order to defend their native country against the invasions of the Goths, the Vandals, the Huns and other barbarous tribes.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—During the period of Roman invasion and subsequent occupation of Britain, India was being ruled over by the Kanvas, the Andhras and the Guptas. The Andhras who came from Southern India and overthrew the Kanvas in 27 B C, remained supreme in Northern India for about three centuries. In the beginning of the fourth century A. D., the Guptas took their rise, when Hinduism was once more revived in a popular form. The greatest of the Gupta emperors was

The Romans
leave Britain in
410 A. D.

Kanva Dynasty,
B C 72—27

Andhra Dynasty,
B C 27—A D
226

Gupta Dynasty,
A D 320—720

Samudra Gupta, surnamed the "Indian Napoleon" for his splendid career of conquest. The successor of Samudra Gupta was Chandra Gupta II, better known as Vikramaditya the Great, a great patron of art and literature. The celebrated "Nine Gems," including the immortal poet Kalidas, adorned the court of this mighty emperor. During the reign of Chandra Gupta II, the celebrated Chinese pilgrim Fa Hian came to India in order to visit the Buddhist holy places. Chandra Gupta II died in 413 A. D.

Samudra Gupta
—the Indian
Napolean

Chandra Gupta
Vikramaditya

CHAPTER III

The Anglo-Saxon Conquest of Britain.

Gradual Conquest of the Country by the Anglo-Saxons.—Taking advantage of the withdrawal of the Romans, the Picts and Scots began to pour into the country, and harass the Britons. To drive them back, the unwarlike Britons invited the help of some foreign tribes from the northern shores of Germany. These tribes belonged to the Teutonic race, and included the Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons. They soon grew into one nation under the name of the Anglo-Saxons or the English. The parts of Britain in which these newcomers came to settle, were henceforth known

The coming
of the
English

as England or the land of the English. First of all came the Jutes in 449 A D, under their chiefs, Hengist and Horsa. They defeated the Picts and Scots, and then turned their victorious arms against the Britons, and succeeded in forming the kingdom of Kent. Next came the Angles and the Saxons. The struggle between the Anglo-Saxons and the Britons continued bitterly for more than a century and a half, and by the year 613 A D, the greater part of Britain fell into the hands of the invaders who soon drove out the Britons to the west into the mountainous districts of Wales. Several Saxon kingdoms thus came into existence, and the seven that played a very prominent part in the early history of Britain, were known as the Heptarchy. They were Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, Northumbria and Mercia.

The Heptarchy

These kingdoms were in constant strife with one another in which the more powerful chiefs tried to become *Bretwalda* or *Overlord* of the whole Island. In 827 A D, Egbert, King of Wessex, reduced all other kingdoms of the Heptarchy, and took upon himself the title of King of the English.

Egbert becomes
king of the
English in 827
A D

Character of the English Conquest—The English settlers were rude and fierce heathens. When they came to Britain they brought with them their worship of Woden, the god of war, of Thor, the god of thunder, and of many other gods. With their advent Roman civilization and Christianity disappeared from the

country. They hated town life and began to live in villages. They were ruled over by kings, who were chosen by the Witan or the Assembly of the wise men. This Assembly resembled, to some extent, the present

The Witan House of Lords The powers of the Witan were indeed very great. It could elect or depose a king, and its opinion was absolutely necessary in making laws and in declaring a war or concluding a peace

Conversion of the English to Christianity —Christianity, as we have seen, had been introduced into Britain by the Romans, but the English invaders who were heathens, pulled down the British churches, slew the Christian priests, and entirely rooted it out from the land.

In the Sixth Century, there was a good Christian priest at Rome, named Gregory. Once he saw some good-looking English boys for sale in the slave-market of Rome, and asked who they were. When he was told that they were Angles, he exclaimed, "If they were but Christians, they would be *Angels* and *not Angles*." Years afterwards when he became Pope or the spiritual head of the Christians, he sent a Roman monk named St. Augustine with a band of forty missionaries to convert the heathen English. In 597 A. D., St. Augustine landed in Kent and first of all converted its king Ethelbert, whose wife was a Christian princess of France. The people of Kent and of Southern England soon followed the

example of Ethelbert The new religion soon spread from the south to the north mainly through the energy and exertion of a missionary named Paulinus, who afterwards became Paulinus Archbishop of York Ireland and Scotland had already been converted into the new faith by St. Patrick and St. Columba respectively

Contemporaneous Indian Events—When Britain was being gradually conquered by the Anglo-Saxons, India was very much disturbed by the repeated incursions of the Huns, a barbarian tribe inhabiting the steppes of Central Asia They divided themselves into two main streams, one invading Europe, and the other directing their course towards India The Gupta Empire was unable to resist the shock of the new invasion, and it fell to pieces The Huns established themselves in the Punjab, and proceeded southwards till the greater portion of Malwa fell into their hands But about 530 A D, they were utterly defeated at the battle of Kahrir by King Yasodharman of Ujjain, at first a feudatory of the Guptas

Yasodharman of
Malwa

After his victory over the Huns, he assumed the title of Emperor. His empire extended from the Himalayas to the Eastern Ghats, and from the Brahmaputra to the Arabian Sea After the death of Yasodharman, India was split up into a number of small kingdoms, carrying on petty quarrels with one another. In the beginning of the seventh century A D, however, the

kingdom of Thaneswar rose to prominence under
Harsavardhan or Siladitya II, the last
Harshavardhan, the last great
Hindu Emperor of Northern
India great Hindu Emperor of Northern India
He was a Buddhist king, and it was
during his reign that the great Chinese
traveller and monk Hieun Tsang came to India. He
resided here for fifteen years, and studied Sanskrit at
the famous University of Nalanda. Harsha reigned
from 606 to 648 A. D. With his death his vast empire
fell to pieces, followed by a period of disturbance and
confusion in the course of which the Rajputs took
their rise, and established themselves in different parts
of the country

KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF EGBERT, 827-1066

Egbert, 827-839

Ethelwulf, 839-858.

Ethelbald, 858-860	Ethelbert, 866-866	Ethelred, Alfred the Great, 871-901
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Edward the Elder, 901-925

Athelstan, 925-940	Edmund, 940-946	Edred, 946-955
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Edwy, 955-959

Edgar, 959-975.

Edward the Martyr, 975-979

Ethelred the Unready, 979-1016

Edmund Ironside, 1016

Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066

Edward

Edgar Etheling

Margaret = Malcolm of Scotland

Matilda = Henry I of the Norman Dynasty

CHAPTER IV.

England under the Early Anglo-Saxon Kings.

1. **Egbert (827-839)**—There were fifteen early Anglo-Saxon kings. The line of the early Anglo-Saxon kings begins with Egbert, king of Wessex, who, as we have seen, brought all other kingdoms in England under his rule in 827 A. D. His dominions extended from the Firth of Forth to the Straits of Dover. In this reign the Danes first began to pour into England, but they soon retired after their defeat by Egbert in 836 A. D. The Danes belonged to the Teutonic race, and inhabited the kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden and Norway. They were also called Vikings and Northmen or Norsemen. They were pirates by trade, and their standard bore the figure of a black raven. At first they remained contented with plundering the coasts of England, but, in course of time, they came to settle in the country and gradually began to conquer and rule over it. Egbert died in 839 A. D.

2. **Ethelwulf (839-858)**—Ethelwulf, son of Egbert, succeeded to the throne in 839 A. D. It was in his reign that the Danes for the first time ventured to winter in England.

3. **Ethelbald (858-860)**—Ethelwulf died in 858 A. D., and was succeeded by his eldest son Ethelbald. His reign, though a short one, was not free from the incursions of the Danes.

4. **Æthelbert** (860-866) — Æthelbert, second son of Æthelwulf, succeeded to his brother's throne in 860 A D. His reign was an almost constant struggle with the Danes. In this reign the Danes established themselves in the Isle of Thanet. He died in 866 A D, and was succeeded by his brother Æthelred.

5 **Æthelred** (866-871) — In this reign the Danes conquered Northumbria and East Anglia, and became masters of all the eastern part of England. The English, led by the king's youngest brother, Alfred, fought bravely but could not turn them out. Æthelred died in 871, and was succeeded by Alfred.

6 **Alfred the Great** (871-901) — The sixth and greatest king of the line was Alfred the Great, the youngest son of Æthelwulf, and grandson of Egbert, who came to the throne of England in 871 A D. His early life was shaped by his mother, Osburga. This good and learned woman early fostered in him a love of learning. He had been sent for education to Rome, and there he learned many useful things that helped him to rule his subjects wisely. The Danes who had already occupied Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria, suddenly marched upon Wessex in 878 A D, and overran the whole kingdom. Alfred was obliged to fly from Wessex and take refuge in the Island of Athelney, in the marshes of Somersetshire. It is related that one day, while Alfred was there, he, disguised as a peasant, sought refuge in the cottage of a shepherd. The shepherd's wife, not knowing the king, ordered him to look after some

cakes which she had laid on the hearth to bake. The king's mind was, however, so much filled with the miseries and disasters of his own kingdom, that he forgot all about the cakes and let them burn. The shepherd's wife, on her return, began to scold him severely. Just then some of his nobles came in, and told him that the Danes had been defeated in a great battle. The shepherd's wife was much surprised when she found that her guest was the king of England. She now fell on her knees and asked the king's pardon. Alfred not only forgave her for her scolding, but also thanked her heartily for letting him live so comfortably in her cottage. A little later, he collected a fine army and completely defeated the Danes at Ethundun in 878 A. D. By the Treaty of Wedmore, concluded in 879 A. D., the Danes acknowledged Alfred as their overlord, and a small strip of the country on the eastern coast, called *Danelagh*, was given to Guthram, the leader of the Danes who agreed to be a Christian. The remaining years of Alfred's reign were marked by peace and prosperity throughout his kingdom. He gave England her first fleet. He drew up a new code of laws. He encouraged learning, and established several schools throughout England. He wrote some books and translated several Latin works into English for the benefit of his subjects. He died in 901 A. D.

7. **Edward the Elder (901-925).**—Alfred the Great was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, an able and vigorous ruler. He fought hard with the Danes, and reconquered a portion of the *Danelagh*.

8. **Athelstan (925-940)**—Athelstan, the eldest son of Edward, succeeded his father in 925. He defeated the Danes with great slaughter, and completely broke the power of the Danes. To encourage trade and commerce, he made a law that a merchant who had made three voyages with his own ship, was to be raised to the rank of a thane or nobleman. He died in 940, and was succeeded by his brother Edmund.

9 **Edmund (940-946)**—Edmund began his reign well. But he reigned only six years, and met his death at the hands of a robber.

10 **Edred (946-955)**—On the murder of Edmund, his brother Edred was made king. His chief adviser was Dunstan, the Abbot of Glastonbury.

11 **Edwy (955-959)**—Edred died childless. So he was succeeded by Edwy, eldest son of his brother Edmund. The king soon quarrelled with Dunstan who had by this time become the chief support of the kingdom, on account of the opposition he offered to the king's marriage with his distant cousin Ethelgiva.

12. **Edgar the Peaceable (959-975)**—Edgar succeeded his brother Edwy in 959. He was surnamed "The Peaceable", because his powerful fleet of 300 ships kept England safe from invasion. On his accession to the throne, he recalled Dunstan, made him Archbishop of Canterbury, and appointed him his chief adviser. The peace and prosperity of England during this time were

mainly due to the valuable advice and wise policy of this great Saxon statesman Dunstan who lived through the reigns of five kings and exercised great political influence. He won over the Danes, firmly enforced justice, and rebuilt the monasteries which the Danes had destroyed

13 Edward the Martyr (975-979).—Edgar died in 975 A D, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Edward the Martyr. Edward was soon murdered by his step-mother in order to make room for her own son Ethelred the Unready. This sad fate of the prince earned for him the surname of "Martyr."

14 Ethelred the Unready (979-1016).—Ethelred, the step-brother of Edward, was a very selfish and weak prince. Shortly after his accession, the Danes renewed their incursions, and the king, following the advice of his worthless counsellors, tried to buy off the Danes, and for this purpose levied a special tax on land called *Danegeld* on his people. This of course attracted fresh hordes of the Danes. To make matters worse, Ethelred ordered a wholesale massacre of the Danes in England on St. Brice's Day in 1002 A D. To avenge this massacre, the Danish king Sweyn invaded England, drove Ethelred out of the country, and proclaimed himself king of England. On the death of Sweyn in 1014 A D, Ethelred was recalled, and he ruled England for two years more. Ethelred earned for himself the nickname of "Unready" or "Uncounselled", for he would not listen to the good advice of Dunstan and others.

In this reign Dunstan retired to his abbey at Glastonbury, and died.

15 Edmund Ironside (1016-1017)—The death of Ethelred the Unready in 1016 A D was followed by a contest for the throne between his own son Edmund Ironside and Canute, son of Sweyn. The contest ended in a partition of the kingdom between the two rivals. In the following year, Edmund who was called Ironside for his strength and bravery, was murdered, and Canute became king of the English.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—At the time when Alfred the Great and his successors were ruling over England, the Rajputs made themselves masters of both Northern and Southern India, except Sind and Multan which had already fallen into the hands of the Muhammadans. But Cause of the fall of the Hindus the Rajputs soon engaged themselves in incessant civil war which made the national union impossible. Taking advantage of this internal weakness of the country, Sabuktigin, king of Ghazni, invaded the Punjab, defeated its king and House of Ghazni. took possession of the country as far as the Indus. After the death of Sabuktigin, his son Sultan Mahmud came to the throne of Ghazni in 999 A D., Sultan Mahmud's Indian expeditions and led not less than twelve expeditions into India, which resulted in the sack of Thaneswar, Mathura and Somnath, and in the conquest of the whole of the Punjab. Thus we find that when the House of Ghazni was disturbing the

peace of Hindusthan, the Danes also renewed their incursions in England with fresh vigour and ultimately succeeded in establishing their authority over the whole of England

CHAPTER V

England under the Danish Kings Restoration of the Old Saxon line

1. **Canute the Great (1017-1035)**—Three Danish kings ruled England for a period of twenty-four years. The first of these kings was Canute the Great. He was also king of Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Though a foreigner, he soon proved himself a good and popular ruler. In the treatment of his subjects, he made no distinction between the Danes and the English. He respected the laws of the English and maintained peace in the country.

There is a story connected with the name of Canute, which shows how good and pious he was. Some of his courtiers tried to win his favour by praising him too much. One day they told him that he was so powerful that even the waves of the sea would do what he bade them. The king, in order to teach these courtiers a lesson, ordered his servants to place his chair on the sea-shore, when the tide was

rising. Seating himself in his chair, he raised his hand in command, and said to the sea,

"From the sacred shore I stand on,
I command thee to retreat,
Venture not, thou stormy rebel,
To approach thy master's seat.
Ocean, be thou still ! I bid thee
Come not nearer to my feet."

But the sea seemed not to mind his command. The waves came up higher and higher till it wetted him and his foolish courtiers, Then he rose up and said to them, "Learn from what you have now seen that there is One only who can say to these waves,—*Thus far shalt thou go, and no further, and that One is God.*" It is said that from that day Canute wore his crown no more. He died in 1035 A D

2 & 3 Harold I. and Hardicanute (1035-1041) — Canute was succeeded by his two sons Harold and Hardicanute, one after the other. They were very bad kings. As they both died without heirs, the Danish rule came to an end in England, and the old line of Anglo-Saxon kings was restored

The Restored Anglo-Saxon Line — There were only two kings of the restored Saxon line, Edward the Confessor and Harold

1. Edward the Confessor (1042-1066) — Edward was the son of Ethelred the Unready and Emma, a princess of Normandy. The province of Normandy, which lies

on the north coast of France, had been formed about a hundred years before by the Northmen or the Normans. These Normans were only a branch of the Danes. When they settled in Normandy, they spoke the French tongue, and adopted the French laws and manners. Their ruler was called the Duke of Normandy. When the Danish king Sweyn invaded England, Edward, then a mere child, was sent by his father to the court of Normandy. Here he remained for twenty-seven years and grew to be a Norman rather than an Englishman in his speech, manners and tastes. When he came to the throne of England, he gave all the offices of power and trust to his Norman favourites and thereby incurred the displeasure of the English nation. On his death-bed, he is said to have nominated his cousin William, Duke of Normandy, as his successor. He was called the Confessor, on account of his piety and holy life. He left the care of his government first in the hands of a powerful nobleman named Godwin, Earl of Wessex, and afterwards entrusted it to Godwin's son Harold. Under the careful management of Harold, the country grew in wealth, prosperity and happiness. He died in 1066 A. D.

2. **Harold II. (1066).**—Edward died childless and so the immediate heir of Edward the Confessor was a boy named Edgar. But he was set aside, and Harold, son of Earl Godwin, was unanimously elected king by the Witan, as they were anxious for a good and strong ruler. Harold ruled only nine months. William,

Duke of Normandy, claimed the English Crown and threatened to invade England. Harold's own brother Tostwig, who had been deposed and exiled from his earldom of Northumber-

Tostwig

land, on account of his cruel and tyrannical rule, invaded the north of England, assisted by the King of Norway. Tostwig, however, was defeated and slain with the King of Norway at the battle of Stamford Bridge. Harold then

Battle of
Stamford Bridge

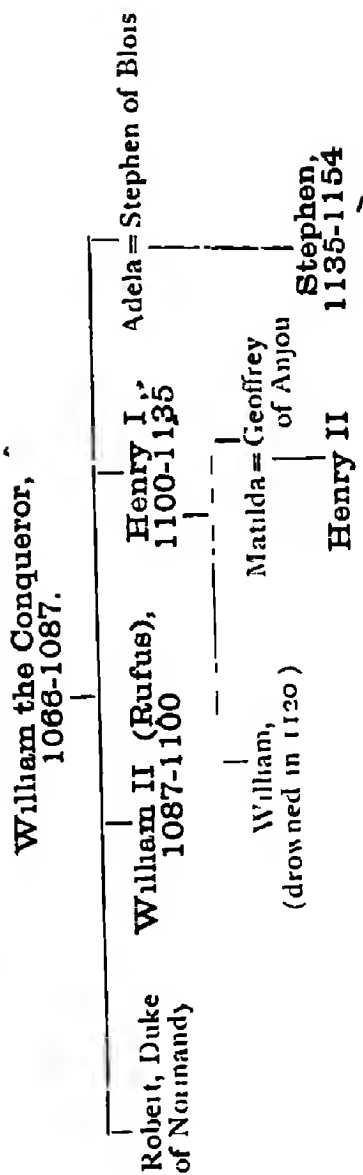
hurried south, and found that William had already landed at Pevensey in Sussex with his Norman followers. A memorable battle was fought on October, 14, 1066 A. D., at

Battle of Senlac
or Hastings, 1066

Hastings between Harold and William. The battle which was fought on the hill of Senlac lasted the whole day, from sunrise to sunset. The English soldiers fought with great valour, but the Normans gained the day. Harold fell fighting bravely, and William was left master of the country. The government of England thus passed into the hands of the Normans.

Contemporaneous Indian Events — When England was being ruled over by three Danish and two restored Anglo-saxon kings, the petty princes of India carried on their mutual struggle with much bitterness. Even the raids of Sultan Mahamud could not induce them to present a united front to their common enemy, the Muhammadans.

THE NORMAN KINGS OF ENGLAND, 1066-1154



CHAPTER VI.

England under the Norman Sovereigns.

1 **William I., the first Norman Sovereign of England (1066-1087)**—After the battle of Hastings, William marched to London, and was elected king by the Witan. On Christmas day, 1066 A D, he was formally crowned at Westminster Abbey. In 1067, William went to Normandy, leaving the administration of the country in the hands of two Norman nobles. These men began to oppress the English. A series of revolts soon broke out in the west and north of England. The English called the Danes to their help, but William hastened back to England, bought off the Danes, and put down the English revolts with merciless cruelty. He ravaged the northern counties, and confiscated the lands of those who had taken part in the late rebellion.

The revolt
of the English

William introduces the Feudal System into England—After subduing the English, William wanted to reward his Norman followers with the vast estates he had confiscated. These he gave, in larger or smaller portions, to his greater nobles, known as barons or tenants-in-chief, on condition of military service. The great nobles in their turn granted part of their estates to their followers called subtenants or knights on similar terms. The land thus given to a baron as the wages of his war-service was regarded as his *feud* or fee, and the system of holding lands in this way was called the Feudal System. Every one who held lands,

either from the king or his tenant, took an oath to be faithful to his lord, and did homage for his estates. The Feudal System resembled, to some extent, the grant of *Jagirs* by the Mogul Emperors of India.

To carry out this new system of land tenure in England, William, in 1085, ordered a complete survey of his kingdom in order to know the extent, nature and exact divisions of all the lands in England, as well as the amount of payments or service due to the king. The results of the survey were written down in a book, known as the Domesday Book.

William's measures to keep the Norman barons in check.—Although William rewarded his Norman nobles by giving them large estates, he adopted two very wise measures to keep them in check. As regards his first measure, we find that in granting large estates to his Norman nobles, he was careful that no noble received too large estates in one place. The result was that if a noble wished to rebel against the king, he could not recruit his men in one place. The second measure was far more important than the first. In 1086, William summoned all the land-owners of England to Salisbury Plain, and made them swear allegiance to their king first and then to their lords. This is known in history as the Salisbury Oath.

Last days of William.—William was very fond of hunting, and so he destroyed a number of villages in

Hampshire to create a forest for his favourite game. The forest was known as the New Forest. A number of severe Forest Laws were also passed by him. William had a quarrel with the King of France, and so he led an army into that country. While he was besieging the town of Mantes in 1087, he received a mortal wound and died. On his death-bed he bequeathed Normandy to his eldest son Robert, and England to his favourite son William Rufus.

2 William II (1087-1100) — The reign of William II, surnamed Rufus from his red appearance, lasted for thirteen years. He was cruel and tyrannical, and carried on constant fighting with his barons. He was killed by an arrow while hunting in the New Forest. It was during this reign that his elder brother Robert, Duke of Normandy, took part in the first Crusade. The Crusade was an expedition undertaken by the Christian princes of Europe to rescue the holy city of Jerusalem from the hands of the Turks who were Muhammadans, and who treated the Christian pilgrims with great cruelty. As Robert had no money to pay the expenses of the expedition, he pledged his dukedom to his brother William and joined the expedition. Those who joined this expedition wore a cross sewn on their dress and were called the Crusaders. The first Crusade was successful. Jerusalem was rescued from the hands of the Turks, and a Christian kingdom was set up there.

3. Henry I. (1100-1135) — Henry I. was the youngest son of William the Conqueror. He was learned and

fond of books and study, and so he was called Beauclerc or Fine Scholar. He was also called the "Lion of Justice" for his strict maintenance of order in the country. He gave England peace and prosperity. He married Matilda of Scotland, who was descended from the old kings of Wessex. This marriage pleased his English subjects, as it united the Saxon and the Norman royal lines.

Henry's Government — On his accession to the throne, he issued a Charter of Liberties in which he The First Charter of Liberties promised to keep the old laws, freedom and religion of the English people intact. He reformed the law courts and improved the methods of government. It was during his reign that wool-growing and weaving were first introduced into England.

Last days of Henry I — But the last days of this good and popular monarch were not happy. His only son William was drowned in the English Channel while returning from Normandy to England. The only heir Matilda now left to him was a daughter named Matilda who has been married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, a province in France. Henry now nominated her as his successor, and made some of the barons swear that they would support the claim of his daughter. He died in 1135.

4 Stephen (1135-1154).—But the majority of the barons did not like to be ruled by a woman, and when

Henry died, they chose Stephen, a grandson of William the Conqueror, as their king. Matilda was not a woman to abandon her claim. She took up arms, and some of the barons joined her. A long civil war followed. To help the cause of his niece Matilda, King David of Scotland invaded England, but was totally defeated in the Battle of the Standard in 1138. Battle of the Standard So long the war between Stephen and Matilda continued, the country suffered terribly. Corn-fields were laid waste, trade and industry were ruined, and the barons took the opportunity to oppress the people. There was nothing but misery from one end of the kingdom to the other. The war, however, was brought to an end by the Treaty of Winchester, by which Stephen Treaty of Winchester was to reign as long as he lived, but young Henry, son of Matilda, was recognised as his successor. Stephen died in 1154.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—During the Norman rule in England, the same state of affairs continued in India as before. Each of the numerous petty states into which the country was divided, tried at this time to aggrandise itself at the cost of the other. The intestine quarrels among the Indian princes naturally rendered the country weak.

THE PLANTAGENET KINGS OF ENGLAND, 1154--1399

Henry II, 1154-1189

Richard I,
1189-1199Geoffrey,
d 1186

John, 1199-1216

Arthur,
(murdered in 1203)

Henry III, 1216-1272

Edward I, 1272-1307

Edward II, - Isabella
1307-1327 of France

Edward III, 1327-1377

Edward,
Black Prince,
d 1376Lionel,
Duke of
ClarenceJohn of
GauntEdmund,
Duke of
YorkThomas,
Duke of
Gloucester.

Richard II, 1377-1399

CHAPTER VII.

England under the Plantagenet Kings.

Plantagenet Dynasty—There were altogether eight kings of the Plantagenet dynasty. The name Plantagenet is derived from *planta genista*, the Latin term for the shrub called broom, a branch of which, Geoffrey, father of Henry II, the first king of this dynasty, used to wear in his helmet.

1 **Henry II (1154-1189)**—In 1154, Henry II, grandson of Henry I and son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, ascended the throne of England in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Winchester. He was the most powerful prince of his time. Before his accession to the throne of England, he had been Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou. He had also won the southern and western parts of France through his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine. After his accession to the English throne, he subdued the Scots and the Welsh, and conquered Ireland.

Henry II restores order—The first thing he did, after coming to the throne, was to restore peace and order in the country after the anarchy in Stephen's reign. He put down the oppression and lawlessness of the barons, and caused them to pull down their castles.

Henry II's Reforms.—In accordance with the terms of the Feudal System, the feudal tenants had to follow their lords to the wars even in foreign lands, and this

was a great hardship to them. Henry ordered that they might pay money, called 'Scutage' or 'Shield Money,' instead of following the barons to foreign lands. He also issued a new and good coinage.

Henry II also reformed the administration of justice. He caused the judges to go round the country at certain times to hear law-suits and to settle disputes. He at the same time began a kind of trial by jury. He ordered that persons accused of crime should be tried by the help of a body of twelve men, chosen from the 'people who lived in the district of the accused, and who swore that they would tell the truth as they knew it. The word jury is derived from the Latin word *jurati* which means sworn men.

His Quarrel with the Clergy.—Since the time of William the Conqueror, clergymen, accused of any crime, were tried not in the King's Court, but in the Church Courts, with the result that they were not properly punished. Henry II wanted to have them tried in the King's Court, but he was opposed by the English clergy, headed by Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.

This Thomas Becket was the most prominent figure in the reign of Henry II. He was the son of a rich London merchant. He was one of the best educated men of his time. Brave, handsome and able, he soon rose high in the king's

favour till he became Archbishop of Canterbury Henry hoped that Becket, his favourite, would support him in carrying out his reforms about the trial of the clergy ; but he was mistaken. As soon as Becket was appointed Archbishop, he set himself to oppose Henry's reforms in every possible way This enraged the king, and in 1164 he called together a council of clergy and barons at Clarendon, near Salisbury, and there drew up a set of laws, called the Constitutions of Clarendon These Constitutions limited the power of the clergy and made them subject to the King's court Becket at first agreed to these laws, but he soon repented of his hasty act, and the quarrel between him and the king became much more violent than ever Becket was now driven out of the kingdom by Henry He went to France, where he resided for six years On his return in 1170, he was murdered at the instigation of the king, by four knights on the steps of the altar of the Cathedral at Canterbury

The
Constitutions
of
Clarendon

Effect of the Quarrel—The murder of Becket made Henry's case worse than before His enemies took advantage of this murder The great nobles rose in rebellion. Even his own sons, assisted by the king of France, took up arms against him But king Henry was equal to the occasion He put down the revolts with admirable skill He then went to Canterbury and did severe penance at Becket's tomb to satisfy his people Moreover he gave up his claims over the clergy He died in 1189, and was succeeded by his second son Richard

2. Richard I. (1189-1199).—Richard was called the Lion-hearted for his enormous strength and dauntless courage in battle. The history of the reign of this king is little more than a history of his warlike deeds. He spent only seven months in England out of his reign of ten years. Early in his reign, he joined the Crusaders and succeeded in defeating the Turks ; but he failed to take Jerusalem. On his way to England, he fell into the hands of the Duke of Austria with whom he had quarrelled at Jerusalem. The Duke sold him to the Emperor of Germany who kept him in prison. He was released after a long time only on payment of a heavy ransom by the English people who loved him for his bravery.

During his absence from the kingdom, his youngest brother John tried, by the help of the king of France, to seize the throne but failed, as the English people did not like this prince. Richard returned to England in 1194, and generously forgave his brother. But soon he went to France to fight with the king of that country, who had helped his brother to rob him of his kingdom. In the course of this war with France, he was killed by an arrow shot from a castle which he had besieged. As he died childless, he was succeeded by his youngest brother John.

3 John (1199-1216).—John, the youngest son of Henry II., was one of the most unpopular kings that ever sat on the English throne. During his reign of seventeen years he committed many blunders. Arthur,

son of John's elder brother Geoffrey, had a better and stronger claim to the crown. He was, however, taken prisoner, and afterwards murdered. The king of France, who took up the cause of Arthur, summoned John to his Court to answer for the murder of his nephew. As John refused to attend his Court, the king of France seized Normandy and most of the other French provinces held by the English kings, except a small strip of land in the south.

John's Quarrel with the Pope of Rome—Not long after the loss of the French possessions John quarrelled with the Pope of Rome about the election of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope appointed a man named Stephen Langton, the wisest and most learned Englishman of his day, to the post. But John objected and would not allow Langton to act as Archbishop. The Pope, being angry, laid England under an interdict, that is to say, he forbade the English clergy to perform any of the services of the Church. The result was that all public worship was forbidden, and all Churches were closed. But still John would not yield. The Pope then excommunicated him, that is to say, John was deprived of the privileges of the Church, and no Christian was to have anything to do with him. John, however, still continued obstinate. He went on confiscating the lands of the clergy and of his subjects. In 1212, the Pope declared that John had no right to reign any longer, and called upon the king of France to invade England and depose John.

At this John gave way and agreed to accept Langton as Archbishop.

John quarrels with the English barons and afterwards signs the Magna Charta — After his submission to the Pope, John began to treat his subjects with greater cruelty and injustice. The English barons wanted that the king should rule with justice and mercy. But the king did not pay heed to the advice of the barons, so they became enraged and collected an army to bring the king to his senses. Archbishop Langton drew up a document setting forth the demands of the English people, which John was compelled to sign at Runnymede, an island in the Thames, between Staines and Windsor, on June, 15, 1215. This document is known in English history as the Magna Charta or the Great Charter, "the keystone of English liberty." The Charter secured to Englishmen the full enjoyment of their rights and liberties. It provided that the king could not collect taxes without the consent of the Great Council of the kingdom, and that no freeman should be imprisoned or punished without proper trial.

The Magna
Charta, 1215

Last days of John.—John signed the Charter but he did not keep his promise. To put down the barons, he brought in a large number of hired soldiers. The barons, in their distress, invited Prince Louis of France to come and free them from the oppression of a worthless ruler like John, and be their king in his stead. The French Prince accordingly landed in Kent with a

large army But the whole aspect of affairs was changed by the sudden death of John in 1216

4 **Henry III (1216—1272).**—As soon as John died, the barons in a body chose his son Henry, a boy of nine years, as their king. The French Prince who had come to England to depose John now finding his case hopeless, left England.

Henry's minority --The king being young, the Earl of Pembroke, a wise and honest statesman, began to carry on the government for him. He pacified the country by republishing the Magna Charta After Pembroke's death in 1219, Archbishop Langton and Hubert de Burgh carried on the government with great success.

Henry assumes the Government—When Henry came of age, he dismissed his best minister Hubert, and began to govern the kingdom himself He soon showed how unfit he was for the office of a king. Disregarding the claims of his subjects, he gave several high posts to foreigners, the relations of his wife and mother He also spent large sums of money in his war with France in order to get back what his father had lost

Henry's misrule and quarrel with the English barons—To meet the expenses of his war with France, he had to levy new taxes, and this he did without the consent of the Great Council The barons protested and demanded the appointment of able ministers But the king continued in his ruinous course without paying heed to what the barons wanted. Remembering

how their combined action had frightened King John, the barons met the king at Oxford in 1258 to arrange a new plan of government. The new plan was

The Provisions
of
Oxford, 1258 accordingly drawn up and embodied in the Provisions of Oxford. The govern-

ment was taken out of the hands of the king, and transferred to a Council of fifteen barons. The king promised to drive the foreigners out of the kingdom, and to appoint able ministers. But Henry, like his father, did not keep his promise, and tried to recover his authority by forcible means. This led to the Baron's War. The barons took up arms and found a leader in the person of Simon de Montfort,

Simon de
Montfort the king's brother-in-law. Simon was a Frenchman by birth, but he gained the

confidence and love of all Englishmen. The king fought with his barons at Lewes in Sussex, in 1264, but was defeated and taken prisoner with his son Prince Edward.

Simon de Montfort governs the kingdom in Henry's name—The victory at Lewes placed Simon at the head of the state. Now his only object was to have the kingdom well-governed. So, in 1265, he called a

Simon's
Parliament, 1265 parliament in the king's name. In this parliament he summoned, for the first time, two knights from each shire or county, and two citizens from each large town, in addition to the barons and the clergy who usually helped the king to govern England. This has been regarded as the first meeting of the English House of Commons.

For more than a year Simon governed the country with eminent success, but the barons soon became jealous of him, and some of them joined Prince Edward who had, by this time, made his escape from the prison. The Prince soon collected a fine army, marched against Simon, and in 1265, defeated and killed him at Evesham in Worcestershire.

Henry regains authority and rules well—After the battle of Evesham, Henry regained his authority, and for the rest of his reign he governed the country wisely. In 1270, Prince Edward left England to take part in the last Crusade. During his absence Henry died in 1272.

5 Edward I. (1272-1307)—Hearing his father's death, Prince Edward hastened back to England, and was crowned king. He was undoubtedly the greatest of the Plantagenets. He had a mind to carry out two very important objects: first, to bring the whole of the British Isles under his rule, and, secondly, to make the government of the country thoroughly efficient.

His conquest of Wales and Scotland—To carry out the first object, he carried on war with Wales and Scotland. He first of all called on Llewelyn, the Prince of Wales, to do homage to him. As Llewelyn would not come, Edward declared war against him. It resulted in the annexation of Wales in 1283. While Edward I. had been in Wales, his first child was born, and this newborn baby was created Prince of Wales,

a title which has ever since been given to the eldest son of the English sovereigns

After his conquest of Wales, he turned his attention to Scotland, the greater part of which fell an easy prey to him. He then appointed some Englishmen to govern Scotland, but they soon made themselves hateful to the Scottish people by their cruel treatment. The discontented Scottish people soon gathered round a brave patriot, named William Wallace, who attacked and defeated the English forces at Cambuskenneth near Stirling in 1297. In the following year, however, Edward marched to

William Wallace

Scotland in person, and defeated the Scots at Falkirk. Wallace fled, but he was soon captured and put to death. Then arose another patriot named Robert Bruce who had already been crowned at Scone, near Perth, by the Scottish people. When

Robert Bruce

Edward heard the news of Robert's coronation, he broke into fury, and at once prepared to invade Scotland. But Edward died on his way to Scotland in 1307.

Edward's organisation of his kingdom — Edward I. used the Parliament as a means of his government, which passed a series of good laws to secure peace and prosperity of the English people. In 1295, he summoned

Model Parlia-
ment, 1295

a complete parliament in which the representatives of the three estates, namely, the clergy, the barons and the commons, sat together. Hence this Parliament has been called the

Model Parliament. He also revised the land-laws, reorganised the law courts, and appointed English Justinian. Keepers of the Peace to suppress crime. For all these reforms he has been called the English *Justinian* *

6 Edward II (1307-1327)—Edward II, son of Edward I., succeeded his father in 1307. He was a feeble but luxurious monarch. He placed too much trust in his wicked and worthless favourites. Of these the chief were Piers Gaveston and Hugh Despenser, whose proud and insolent behaviour offended the English nobles and at last brought about Edward's fall.

His war with Scotland—The chief event of his reign was his war with Robert Bruce of Scotland. Edward I., on his death-bed, ordered his son to complete the conquest of Scotland. To carry out the dying command of his father, Edward II collected a large army and marched to Scotland. He met Bruce with far smaller forces on the bank of a burn or little stream called the Bannock in 1314. Battle of
Bannockburn, 1314 The Scots fought with such valour that the English army was completely defeated. The battle of Bannockburn secured the independence of Scotland.

His deposition and murder—Edward II married Isabella, daughter of King Philip IV. of France. She was a clever and beautiful woman, but she hated her husband for his folly. She and her favourite Roger

* Justinian—a Roman law-giver.

Mortimer joined in a plan to dethrone Edward and to make her minor son king in his stead. In 1327, the Parliament met and declared Edward unfit to rule on account of his cruelty and undue concessions to his favourites. He was consequently deposed and imprisoned at Berkeley Castle in Gloucestershire, where he was soon cruelly murdered by the orders of his wife, Queen Isabella, and Roger Mortimer, her favourite.

7 Edward III. (1327-1377)—Edward III was only fourteen years old when he was chosen king by the Parliament after the deposition of his father. The king being a minor, a Council of 'Regency' was formed to conduct the affairs of the kingdom. But the real power was exercised by Queen Isabella and her favourite Roger Mortimer. But when Edward took the reins of government into his own hands, he had Mortimer executed and Isabella imprisoned for their treatment towards the late king.

His war with Scotland—Edward III was very fond of war, and his first fighting was with the Scots. When Robert Bruce died in 1329, and was succeeded by his infant son David Bruce, Edward III tried to force the Scots to accept one Edward Balliol as their king. The Scots, however, did not like that a ruler should be thrust upon them by the English whom they hated. Edward marched into Scotland, and gained a great victory over the Scots at Halidon Hill, near Berwick-on-Tweed, in 1333. The Scots now appealed to France for help which was readily given.

With the assistance of the French king Philip VI. David Bruce regained his throne.

Edward III's war with France The first period of the Hundred Years' War — The most important event of his reign was the commencement of the famous French war, usually known in history as the Hundred Years' War. It is called Hundred Years' War, not because the war continued without a break for hundred years, but because the two countries were enemies for about a century, covering the reigns of five English kings. Edward went to war with France for various reasons. France helped Scotland, with men and money in her war with England.

Causes that led
to the war

The French king Philip VI tried to deprive the English king of his possessions in France. Philip VI, who had been the overlord of Flanders, the country including partly the modern kingdom of Belgium and partly the north-eastern part of France, wanted to destroy the prosperous wool-trade carried on between England and that country. The people of Flanders, fearing lest the French king should stop their trade with England, persuaded Edward III to assume the title of King of France so that they might transfer their allegiance from Philip VI to him. Soon after Edward became king of England, Charles IV, king of France, died childless. At that time Edward had claimed the French crown through his mother Isabella, the sister of the late French king. But as women were forbidden by the French law to succeed, and as Edward's claim was through his mother, his claim was passed over,

failed they sent word to Edward that they were willing to surrender the city, if the king promised to save their lives. Edward informed them that he would spare their lives on condition that six of their best men, bare-headed, barefooted, and with ropes round their necks, should bring him the keys of the city gates, and give themselves up to him as he should please. When the six principal men of Calais presented themselves before Edward, he took the keys from them and ordered them to instant death. But Queen Philippa who accompanied her husband to France, fell upon her knees before the king, and with tears in her eyes begged for their lives. The king dared not refuse the request of his beloved wife. "Dear Lady", he said, "I do it against my will, yet take them, I give them to you." The Queen then sent these six men with valuable presents to their respective homes. After the fall of Calais a respite followed for nine years. But in 1356 the Black Prince won another great victory over the French army at Battle of Poitiers, Poitiers. King Philip VI was now 1356 dead, but his son King John who had fought bravely in this battle, was taken prisoner and brought captive to London where he died in 1364. Four years after the battle of Poitiers, in 1360, the Treaty of Bretigny was concluded which closed the war Treaty of Bretigny, for a time. By this treaty Edward gave 1360 up his claim to the French crown but, in return for that, he received, besides Calais, a large part of France extending from the Pyrenees to the Loire.

The Black Prince became ruler of the French possessions, and to meet the expenses for his expedition into Spain, he began to raise money by levying new taxes on his French subjects. They raised a cry of discontent and appealed to the French king Charles V, son of King John, who at once took up their cause and, gradually recovered most of the English lands in France, excepting Calais and two other towns. The Black Prince returned to England in a bad state of health and was slowly dying

Black Death.—During the reign of this monarch England was visited by a terrible plague called the Black Death which carried away a third of her population (1348). The labourers decreased in number, and the few that survived demanded higher wages for their labour. But the Lords induced the king to pass a statute, called the Statute of Labourers, which compelled the labourers to work at their usual rate of wages.

The two Houses of Parliament—The Commons or the Knights of the Shire and the Representatives of Cities were allowed to sit in the Parliament since the reign of Henry III. But they used to sit together with the Bishops and the Barons. It was in the reign of Edward III that they, for the first time, began to sit separate, and the Parliament was henceforth divided into two Houses, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

Last days of Edward III—The last days of Edward III. were not happy. All his French possessions

were lost to him except Calais and two other towns. His beloved wife Queen Philippa and his brave son, the Black Prince, died before him. Worn out in body and mind, he passed away in 1377, after nominating Richard, son of the Black Prince, as his successor.

Character of Edward III.—Edward III. was one of the greatest kings that ever sat on the throne of England. He was a brave soldier and wise statesman. He did much for the prosperity and happiness of the English people. It was he who introduced the woollen manufacture into England. He made the name of England feared and respected on the Continent.

He conferred a great benefit on the English people when, in 1362, he directed that henceforth English should be used in all proceedings in the Courts of law instead of French which had been used before. Geoffrey Chaucer, the first great English poet and author of *The Canterbury Tales*, and Sir John Froissart, the writer of the *Chronicles*, which give us the most lively and striking pictures of the country during this period, flourished in this reign.

8. Richard II (1377-1399)—Richard was a boy of eleven, when he succeeded his grandfather Edward III. in 1377. During the king's minority, the government was placed in the hands of a Council of Regency, appointed by Parliament and led by his selfish uncles, the chief of whom was John of Gaunt, third son of Edward III.

Continuation of the Hundred Years' War with France—The Council of Regency continued the war with France. The English, however, could not gain any victory. Flanders fell under the control of France. In 1396, Richard married Isabella, the daughter of Charles VI. who was now King of France, and a truce was accordingly arranged between the two countries.

Wycliff.—John Wycliff was a learned English priest who in the latter part of the reign of Edward III. as well as in this reign, began to point out the faults of the Church. He not only attacked the evil and careless lives which were led by the English Clergy, but also questioned the authority of the Pope of Rome in England. He organised an order of preachers known as "the Poor Priests" to spread his ideas among his countrymen. He also translated the Bible from Latin into English. As he had been the first Reformer that dared to attack the abuses of the Church, he is called "the Morning Star of the Reformation." Wycliff died in 1384, leaving behind him a large number of followers. His followers were called Lollards, that is, babblers or sayers of vain things, by their opponents. They went about from place to place preaching doctrines opposed to the authority of the Church and the State.

A few years after the death of Wycliff, one of the "Poor Priests" named John Ball
John Ball
preached in Kent against the luxury of the rich and their oppression over the poor. His preaching prepared the mind of the poor people of

Kent to look for an opportunity to break into a revolt.

The Peasant Revolt, 1381 —In order to meet the expenses of the French war, several new taxes were imposed. One of these was the hated poll-tax which was a tax on every-body's head, and the Council of Regency sent men round the country to gather the new tax, which caused a widespread discontent among the poor people.

At Dartford, a town in Kent, lived a workman called from his occupation Walter the Tyler
 History has shortened his name into Wat Tyler
 Wat Tyler. It happened one day that when this man was engaged in tiling the roof of a house, the collectors of the hated poll-tax visited his town, and one of them insulted his daughter. At this Wat jumped from the roof, where he had been at work, and struck the man so fiercely that he dropped down dead. All the poor and discontented people of Kent at once rose into rebellion, and demanded that the hated tax should be repealed. There was a similar movement in Essex under the leadership of Jack Straw. In a few days risings broke out in other parts of the country also. The Kentish rebels, with Wat Tyler at their head, reached London, murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Treasurer who had proposed this invidious tax, and then demanded an interview with the king. The young king who was then only sixteen years old, boldly came out of the Tower of London to meet them. As Wat Tyler approached, the Mayor of London thinking that

he was going to stab the king, killed him. The moment the rebels saw their leader fall down, they determined to kill the king and his followers. But the boy king at once went into their midst and cried out, "Are you angry that you have lost your leader? I am your king. I will be your leader." He then promised them to satisfy their demands, and sent them back to their homes. In other parts of the country the rebels were put down by force.

Events subsequent to the Peasant Revolt—In 1389, Richard took the reins of government into his own hands, and ruled for some time with much wisdom and success. But he soon proved himself to be a very bad ruler. He forced the Parliament to grant him sufficient money to make him independent. He also began to raise forced loans from his subjects. In 1397, he unjustly banished his cousin Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster, son of John of Gaunt, from his kingdom, and confiscated his property. These lawless proceedings made him very unpopular, and when he had gone to Ireland to put down some disturbance there, Henry Bolingbroke came over to England to recover his property. The nobles and the people at once welcomed Henry as their king. The Parliament then met and ordered Richard to be deposed. He was made a prisoner in Pontefract Castle, where he was supposed to have been murdered.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—The Plantagenet kings ruled England for nearly two hundred and fifty years. During this period India passed into the hands

of the Muhammadans who established an empire there with Delhi as its capital. Taking advantage of the intestine quarrels among the princes of India, Shahabuddin Muhammad Ghorî invaded India in 1086. He first of all wrested the Punjab from the House of Ghazni, and then attacked the kingdom of Delhi, which was at that time ruled over by the celebrated Chauhan prince, Prithviraj. Prithviraj had a quarrel with his cousin Jaychandra, king of Kanouj, who, it is said, invited Shahabuddin to come and invade the dominions of Prithviraj. Muhammad Ghorî was, however, defeated in the first attempt near Thaneswar in 1191. But two years later, he succeeded in defeating Prithviraj in the Second Battle of Thaneswar, in which the Chauhan prince was captured and put to death in cold blood. Soon after this victory, he turned his arms against Jaychandra, and took Kanouj from him. With the help of his two able lieutenants, Kutubuddin and Bukhtyar Khulji, he succeeded in reducing the whole of Northern India. But the life of this Muhammadan conqueror was cut short by assassination in 1206. After his assassination, Kutubuddin, originally a slave but afterwards a lieutenant of Muhammad Ghorî, proclaimed himself Emperor of Delhi. He was the founder of the Slave Dynasty. He died in 1210, and was succeeded by nine rulers in turn, the most powerful of them being Altamash, Razia, and Ghasuddin Balban. It was in the reign of Altamash that the terrible Moguls under Chengiz Khan entered

India for the first time as far as the Indus Razia was a daughter of Altamash, and she carried on the administration with ability and success. But she showed undue favour towards an Abyssinian slave, which ultimately caused her imprisonment and death. During the reign of Balban, the Moguls again appeared in India and repeatedly invaded the Punjab. He sent his son Muhammad against the Moguls. Muhammad succeeded in defeating them, but died in the lap of victory. The last king of the Slave dynasty was deposed and murdered

The Khilji Dynasty, 1288-1321 by his prime minister Jalaluddin Khilji who ascended the throne in 1288. It was

during his reign that the Muhammadans for the first time crossed the Vindhya, and attacked the kingdoms of Southern India, the greater part of which fell into their hands in the reign of the next king, Alauddin Khilji, who was the greatest of all the Pathan kings of India. The Moguls also disturbed the peace of the country in the reigns of Jalaluddin and Alauddin. Jalaluddin permitted some of the Moguls who embraced Muhammadanism, to settle in the country, but Alauddin ordered a wholesale massacre of them, as they made a plot to kill the Emperor. The son of Alauddin was murdered by a renegade Hindu named Khusru, who usurped the throne for himself. The usurper was, however, soon deposed and murdered by Ghiasuddin Tughlak, Governor of the Punjab. Ghiasuddin, the founder of the

The Tughlak Dynasty, 1321-1412 Tughlak Dynasty, ascended the throne of Delhi in 1321. His son Juna Khan, better known as Muhammad Tughlak, was a mad and bloody

king. He soon proved himself to be a very bad ruler. The Pathan Empire which reached the zenith of its power in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, showed signs of decay in his own life-time, as the natural result of his cruel and whimsical acts. In Southern India, two famous kingdoms, namely the Hindu kingdom of Vijaynagar and the Muhammadan kingdom of the Bahmanis, sprang up on the ruins of the Pathan Empire in 1344 and in 1347 respectively. Muhammad died in 1351. It was during his reign that the famous African traveller Ibn Batuta visited India, and was afterwards appointed a judge by the Emperor. During the reigns of the successors of Muhammad Tughlak, the Pathan Empire further declined. Several independent kingdoms thus came into existence, the most important of them being Gujarat, Khandesh, Jaunpur and Malwa. Taking advantage of the weakness of the central government at Delhi, the Moguls under Timur once more entered India, and attacked Delhi in 1398. Emperor Mahmud Tughlak was Timur's Invasion, defeated, and he fled from Delhi. 1398 Timur then proclaimed himself Emperor, sacked Delhi, and left India with a vast booty.

CHAPTER VIII.

**England under the House of Lancaster
and the House of York.****The Lancastrian Kings, 1399—1461.**

1. **Henry IV (1399-1413)**—Henry Bolingbroke took the title of Henry IV. when he ascended the throne of England. Being the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, he is known in history as the first of the three Lancastrian kings of England. Henry IV's claim to the throne
Henry was not the rightful heir, for Edmund Mortimer, a great grandson of Lionel, the second son of Edward III, had a better claim to the throne. Yet Henry was not a usurper, for he was elected by the Parliament.

Rebellions against Henry IV.—The reign of Henry IV lasted for fourteen years, but the first ten years of his reign were much disturbed by plots, intrigues and rebellions at home. A league against Henry, in which the Scots joined, was formed by Percy, Earl of Northumberland, and a Welsh gentleman named Owen Glendower. The rebels were, however, defeated in the Battle of Shrewsbury in 1403.

Another conspiracy to put Edmund Mortimer on the throne was also unsuccessful. When these troubles were over, Henry turned his attention to make and improve laws for his people.

Henry's laws to put down Lollardism.—The Lollards or the followers of John Wycliff were still preaching

their new doctrines which alarmed the Parliament and the Church so much that Henry IV. was induced to pass a severe law in 1401, directing that heretics or preachers of false doctrines should be burnt alive. Several persons were accordingly burnt to death for preaching doctrines opposed to those of the Established Church. Henry IV. was the first English king who put his subjects to death for their religious opinions.

The Act
"concerning the
Burning of a
Heretic," 1401

Henry IV.'s Parliament—During the reign of Henry IV. the influence of Parliament considerably increased. The Commons got the privilege of freedom of debate and of granting supplies. Henry died in 1413.

2 Henry V. (1413-1422)—On the death of Henry IV. in 1413, his son Henry V. succeeded him. He is said to have been very wild and dissolute in his youth, but after his accession he became one of the ablest and bravest monarchs of England. There is a well-known story told about him, when he was Prince of Wales. The Prince used to spend all his time with a number of low companions. Once one of them had been brought for some offence before the Chief Justice, Gascoigne. The Prince went down to the Court, demanded the instant release of the prisoner, and upon the refusal of Gascoigne to give him up, drew his sword to strike the judge. Gascoigne at once ordered the officers to take the haughty Prince to prison for contempt of court. The young Henry had the good sense to

submit When Henry IV., his father, heard of what had passed, he exclaimed, "Happy is the king who has a judge so true to his duty, and a son who knows how to submit to the law !"

Henry V's War with France Continuation of the Hundred Years' War—Henry's short reign of nine

Siege of Harfleur

years was mainly occupied with his war with France. Taking advantage of the lunacy of the French king Charles VI and the consequent disorder in France, Henry revived the claim of Edward III to the French crown. In 1415, Henry V. landed with a small but powerful army at Harfleur, a town at the mouth of the Seine. He laid siege to the place and took it. He then marched towards Calais, but the French barred his way at Agincourt, not very far from the battle-field of Crecy. Though the French force was about seven times the number of the English, Henry V. resolved to fight.

The battle of Agincourt was fought

*The Battle of
Agincourt, 1415*

on October, 25, 1415. It ended in the total defeat of the French army by the English archers. So the old English ballad runs—

"Agincourt, Agincourt !
Know ye not of Agincourt ?
Never to be forgot
Or known to no men ?
Where English cloth-yard arrows
Killed the French like tame sparrows,
Slain by our bowmen."

After this victory Henry marched to Calais, and from Calais he sailed to Dover, and was received with joy and demonstration in London. In 1417, Henry again invaded Normandy and conquered the greater part of France. The city of Rouen surrendered to Henry after a brave resistance in 1418. At Rouen Henry built his palace and held his Court. The English then conquered the whole of Normandy, which brought France to submission. A treaty was made ^{Treaty of Troyes,} in 1420, known as the Treaty of ¹⁴²⁰ Troyes, by which it was agreed that Henry should marry Katherine, daughter of the French king, Charles VI, that he should be made Regent of France, and that on the death of Charles he should himself succeed to the throne of France.

Henry V. did not live long to enjoy his victory. He died in 1422, and was succeeded by his infant son Henry VI.

3 Henry VI (1422-1461).—Henry VI. was the only child of Henry V and Katherine of France. He was a baby of only nine months old when his father died. One of his uncles, the Duke of Gloucester, was appointed guardian of the infant king and Protector of the Realm of England, while another uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was made Regent in France for him.

Close of the Hundred Years' War.—Two months after Henry VI.'s accession Charles VI., the mad king of France, died, and Henry was proclaimed King of France also, according to the provisions of the Treaty

of Troyes. But the Dauphin, the eldest son of the French king, who now took the title of Charles VII, contested his claim to the French throne. All the provinces south of the Loire acknowledged him as their king. The provinces north of the Loire were in the hands of the English. The Duke of Bedford resolved to bring the provinces south of the Loire under English rule. In 1428, the Duke of Bedford laid siege to Orleans, the most important town on that river. In 1429, he defeated the French at the Battle of the Herrings, 1429 Battle of the Herrings, so called because the English, when attacked by the French, were conveying a supply of fish to their garrisons. Just at the time when it seemed that the city of Orleans would fall, a deliverer of France arose in the person of a young peasant girl named Jeanne Darc or as some call her, Joan of Arc.

Joan of Arc—Joan lived in a little country village in France, and spent her time in sewing and spinning and in tending her father's cattle. She thought so much about the sad state of her country that at last she fancied that she had been sent by God to drive the English from France. She found her way to the Dauphin, and persuaded him to accept her services. Dressed as a soldier and mounted upon a white horse, she led the French soldiers to Orleans, and drove off the English who were besieging it. After this Joan was called by the French people the Maid of Orleans. The English were now so much in terror of her that

they were defeated by the French everywhere. She then marched to Rheims, and led the Dauphin to be crowned there. When she saw the crown placed on the head of Charles VII. she fell at his feet and asked that she might go home, for her work was done. But the king would not let her go, he begged her to stay longer and help him. The next year she, however, fell into the hands of the English. The English thought her that she was a witch, and so they burnt her alive in the market place of Rouen in 1431. But the new hope and spirit which Joan had infused into the hearts of the French soldiers, did not die away with her. Though the war between the English and the French continued for more than twenty years after her death, the French gradually conquered the whole of the English possessions in France except the town of Calais.

Henry VI's Government.—In 1442 Henry VI. came of age. It was, however, soon found out that he was quite unfit to govern the country. He was delicate in health and feeble in intellect. Like his maternal grandfather Charles VI of France, he had frequent attacks of insanity. He wanted to make peace with France, and so, in 1445, he married Margaret, daughter of the Count of Anjou and niece of Charles VII. of France. After his marriage he made peace with France. Margaret was a beautiful and clever lady, and her husband soon became a puppet in her hands. She now began to govern England through her favourite minister, the Duke of Suffolk. The people became much

discontented when the king married a French woman and made peace with France. The discontent of the people led to various riots and disturbances, the most important of which was Jack Cade's Jack Cade's Rebellion Rebellion. The people of Kent, Surrey and Sussex, headed by an Irishman named Jack Cade, rose in rebellion in 1450. They demanded that Richard, Duke of York, who was the great grandson of Edward III. and the next heir to the throne, should be made Protector of England. The rebels entered London, murdered the Treasurer and committed many outrages. But Jack Cade was soon killed, and his followers dispersed on a promise of pardon.

In 1453, Margaret gave birth to a child ; but in the same year Henry became insane, and the Parliament appointed Richard, Duke of York, to be the Protector of the Realm during his insanity. In 1454, King Henry, however, recovered from his insanity, and the services of the Duke of York were no longer required. Persuaded by his queen, Henry now dismissed the Duke of York. But the Duke of York refused to submit, and took up arms against the king.

The Wars of the Roses.—Richard, Duke of York, was the representative of the second and the fourth son of Edward III., whereas the reigning king Henry VI. was the representative of the third son of Edward III. The Duke of York now claimed the throne and said that he had a better right to it than Henry. He was

supported in his claim by various powerful nobles, the most important of them being the Earl of Salisbury and the Earl of Warwick.

This civil war is known in history as the Wars of the Roses, for the Yorkists or the followers and supporters of the Duke of York, had a white rose for their badge, while the Lancastrians or the followers and supporters of King Henry, had a red one as a sign of distinction.

The war raged for thirty years from 1455 to 1485. The first fight took place at St. Albans in 1455, in which the Duke of York became victorious. Then followed a series of battles with fortune sometimes on one side and sometimes on the other. To put an end to the civil war, the Parliament in 1460 declared that Henry VI. was to reign during his life and the Duke of York to act as Protector for the rest of the king's life and to succeed him after his death. But Margaret became enraged at her son's claim being set aside, and so Henry VI. collected an army and took the field against Richard and defeated and killed him in the Battle of Wakefield. After the death of Richard, his eldest son Edward succeeded to his title and vigorously carried on the war, and though he was defeated in the Second Battle of St. Albans, he entered London, and was crowned king mainly through the support of the famous Earl of Warwick (1461). Henry VI. then fled to the north, but he was soon captured and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

The Yorkist Kings, 1461-1485.

1 Edward IV (1461-1483) —Edward IV was the first Yorkist king. He was a young man of nineteen, when he sat on the throne of England. Queen Margaret, however, did not give up the struggle. She fought three more battles with Edward, in each of which she was defeated. In 1464, she fled to France with her son.

The Earl of Warwick had all along been the chief supporter of the House of York. He was the greatest and richest nobleman in the kingdom. Warwick had negotiated the marriage of Edward with the Princess of Savoy, but the king who had secretly married Elizabeth Woodville, the beautiful young widow of a Lancastrian noble, now publicly announced his secret marriage. To free himself from the control of Warwick, he gave almost all offices of trust and honour to his wife's relations. In deep disgust Warwick resolved to dethrone Edward. He crossed over to France, where he met his old enemy Margaret, and made friends with her. He married his younger daughter to Margaret's son Edward, and promised to help her to restore her husband to the throne. In a few months he landed in England with a large French army at his back. Edward IV. fled to Flanders. Warwick now took Henry VI out of the Tower, and placed him on the throne. Warwick was called the King-maker, because he could *make* as well as *unmake* kings by his word. It was mainly through his support

that Edward IV. won the crown, and later when Edward offended him, it was he who actually overthrew him and restored Henry VI. to the throne

But Edward soon returned with a large army to recover his throne, and defeated and killed Warwick at Barnet in 1471. Another battle was fought at Tewkesbury, in which Queen Margaret was captured, and her son Prince Edward was killed. Poor Henry again became a prisoner, but he was soon secretly put to death. With the murder of Henry VI., the House of Lancaster came to an end.

Battles of
Barnet and
Tewkesbury

During the reign of Edward IV., printing was first introduced into England in 1476, by an Englishman named Caxton who learnt the new art in Germany. Edward died in 1483, leaving two sons, Edward, Prince of Wales, and Richard, Duke of York.

Introduction
of Printing
into England

2 Edward V (1483)—Edward V was only twelve years old, when he succeeded his father. His uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, caused himself to be made Protector. Richard was a cruel and ambitious man. He now wanted to make himself king. So he sent the young king Edward and his brother Richard to the tower, and supported by the powerful Duke of Buckingham, got himself proclaimed King of England under the title of Richard III. The reign of Edward V. lasted for only eleven weeks from April 9 to June 25, 1483

3. **Richard III (1483-1485).**—Richard III. was very ugly in appearance, and one of his shoulders was much higher than the other, and so he was called by his people Hunchback. He was a cruel and wicked king. His first act after coming to the throne was to cause the murder of his two young nephews, Edward V and his younger brother, Richard, Duke of York.

Fate of
Edward V and
his brother

The reign of Richard was not a quiet one. The Duke of Buckingham, who had helped him in all his wicked actions, now became envious of Richard and began to plot against him, but Richard had him arrested and put to death. Other plots were also formed against him for putting Henry, Earl of Richmond, on the throne. Henry's mother, Margaret Beaufort, was a descendant of John of Gaunt, and Henry was thus the heir of the House of Lancaster. He had long been in exile. In 1485, he landed at Milford Haven in Wales. Richard advanced with a large army to oppose Henry and met him at a place called Bosworth, in Leicestershire, where a great battle was fought. Richard fought bravely, but he was defeated and slain. The crown was then placed on the head of Richmond who was hailed king on the battle-field as Henry VII. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV, and thus the Houses of Lancaster and York were united, and the Wars of the Roses came to an end.

Battle of
Bosworth, 1485

Contemporaneous Indian Events.—During the rule of the Lancastrian and Yorkist kings of England, India

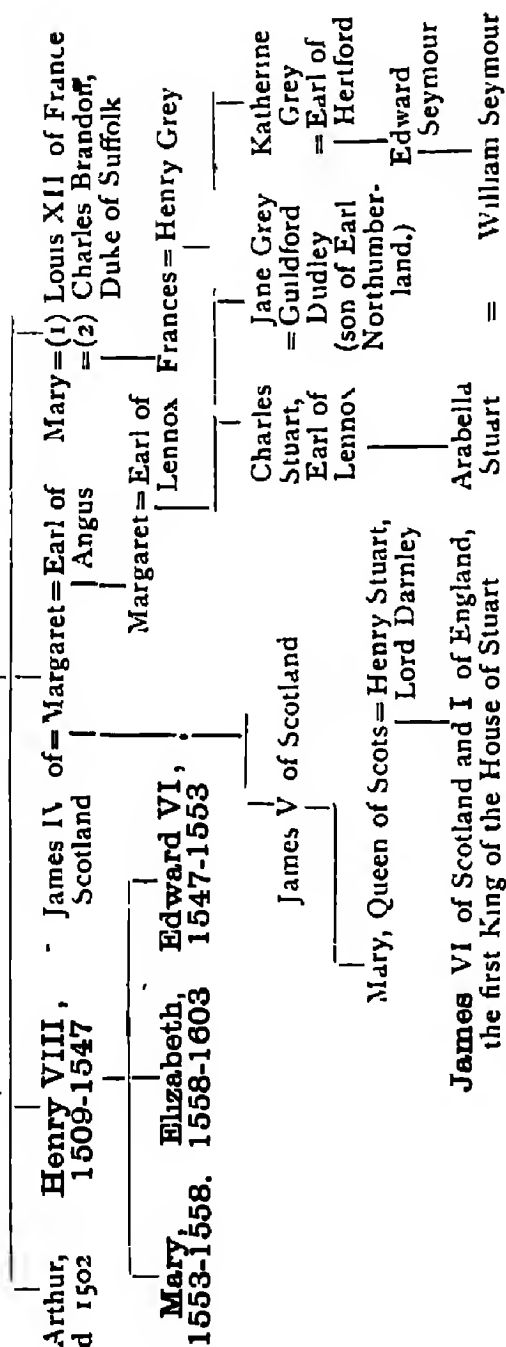
was being ruled over by the three dynasties of Pathan kings—the Tughlak, the Syad and the Lodi. When Timur the Tartar left India, Mahmud Tughlak returned to his capital and ruled for thirteen years more. After his death in 1412, one of the nobles seized the throne, but in 1414 he was expelled by Syad Khizr Khan, Governor of Multan. Khizr became the founder of a new dynasty, known as the Syad dynasty, which ruled over Delhi for thirty-seven years. The successors of Khizr were all weak princes. In 1451, Bahlul Lodi, Governor of the Punjab, deposed the last king of the Syad dynasty and secured the throne for himself. He succeeded in re-annexing Jaunpur after a war of more than a quarter of a century. He was succeeded by his son Sekundar Lodi in 1481.

The Syad
Dynasty,
1414-1451

The Lodi
Dynasty,
1451-1526



SOVEREIGNS OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR, 1485-1603
Henry VII, 1485-1509.



CHAPTER IX.

England under the Tudors

1 **Henry VII. (1485-1509)** --The Victor of Bosworth, Henry VII., was the son of a Welsh gentleman named Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond. Hence the dynasty founded by Henry is known in history as the Tudor dynasty.

Transition from the Middle to the Modern Period -- The period of English history known as the Medieval Period or the Middle Ages, comes to a close with the conclusion of the Wars of the Roses. With the accession of Henry VII. to the throne of England, we come to a new period of history called the Modern Period or the Modern Ages. The most notable features of the change from the Middle to the Modern Ages are the suppression of the nobility, the rise of a strong monarchy, the invention of gunpowder and the consequent changes in the art of warfare, the great scientific and geographical discoveries, the Revival of Learning and the great religious movement, known as the Reformation.

Impostors in Henry's reign --The beginning of Henry's reign was troubled by impostors who came forward to dispute his claim to the throne.

The most important of these impostors was Perkin Warbeck who declared himself to be Richard, Duke of York, youngest son of Edward IV. Richard was, however, murdered in the Tower with his eldest brother Edward V, but the impostor Perkin said that he had escaped from the Tower when Edward V was murdered.

Both the king of France and the king of Scotland helped him with men and money. With their help he began to trouble Henry until he was captured and executed in 1499.

Henry's measures to break down the power of the nobility — When these troubles were over, Henry VII. began to restore peace and order in the country. He kept a strong hand over the nobles who used to disturb the peace of the land by their constant quarrel with one another, by passing a law which forbade them to keep a large number of retainers or soldiers. He also set up a new Court of Justice, called the The Court of Star Chamber Star Chamber, to try and punish any nobleman who might break this law or commit any other offence against the State. Moreover, the use of gunpowder put a new power into Henry's hands, for the king alone had the control of the artillery, and the nobles were not allowed to possess cannon.

Important Marriage Alliances.—To strengthen his position, Henry married his children to foreign princes and princesses. He married his daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland. It was this union that afterwards led to the accession of James I to the throne of England in 1603. He also married his eldest son Arthur to the Spanish Princess, Catherine of Aragon, who, after Arthur's death, was remarried to his second son, Prince Henry. His another daughter, Mary, became Queen of France.

How Henry filled his Coffers — Henry VII called few parliaments and asked for little money, but he amassed

large wealth by other ways. His favourite minister Cardinal Morton invented a new device to bring large sums of money into his master's coffers without openly breaking the law. This new device was called "Morton's Fork". If a man lived in a good and magnificent style, the Cardinal would tell him that his mode of living showed that he Morton's Fork could afford to give a large sum of money to the king, but if a man lived in a plain, simple fashion, the Cardinal would also tell him that he must have saved much and could, therefore, help the king by giving a handsome amount of money to him. As Henry grew older, he became more avaricious. After the death of Cardinal Morton, he permitted two lawyers, named Empson and Dudley, to take any means to raise money for him.

Importance of his reign.—Henry VII reigned for about a quarter of a century, but within this short period he established a strong monarchy, and took many useful measures to promote the material and intellectual welfare of his people. He built the Gothic Lady Chapel of Westminster Abbey, where he was buried after his death in 1509.

Important Geographical Discoveries.—During this reign, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, came to Henry, and asked him to furnish him with some ships to discover a new world for him. Henry refused to comply with his request, but Columbus who was soon sent by the king of Spain, discovered the islands of the West Indies in 1492. This discovery opened the eyes

of Henry, and he sent an Italian sailor, named John Cabot, to make further discoveries. Cabot sailed from Bristol and discovered the mainland of America in 1497.

In 1498, Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese navigator, doubled the Cape of Good Hope and reached India. This voyage led to the discovery of the sea route to India, which established direct commercial intercourse between Europe and this country.

The Revival of Learning—Constantinople, the capital of Eastern Roman Empire, had been the home of Greek learning and literature up to the year 1453. In that year the city fell into the hands of the Turks, and the scholars that lived there fled to Italy, taking with them their books and writings. In Italy these scholars were warmly received. From Italy they spread Greek philosophy and literature in Western Europe. This New Learning was also introduced into England in this reign by a small band of scholars, generally known as the Oxford Reformers. The most important of these reformers were Colet, Dean of St Paul's, Erasmus, a Dutch scholar and Professor of Greek Literature at Cambridge, and Thomas More, the renowned author of *Utopia*.

2 Henry VIII. (1509-1547)—Henry VII was succeeded by his only surviving son Henry who ascended the throne at the age of eighteen with the title of Henry VIII. in 1509. He was handsome, able and learned, but selfish, greedy and cruel. During the early part of his reign he was very popular with his subjects, but late in life he became a heartless despot.

To gain popularity the first thing that he did, was to send Empson and Dudley, his father's agents for extorting money from the English people, to the Tower. They were afterwards put to death on a charge of treason

His war with France—Shortly after his accession to the throne, Henry invaded France and defeated the French at Guinegate, a small town to the south of Calais, in 1513. This battle was also called the "Battle of the Spurs", because the French warrior made more use of their spurs in their flight than of their swords in fighting. The French, however, soon came to terms with the English. Shortly after this the French king, Louis XII., who had married Henry VIII.'s youngest sister Mary, died childless. After the death of the French king, Mary came back to England and married her old lover Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. In France, Louis XII. was succeeded by his cousin Francis I. The new king now arranged a friendly interview with Henry VIII. at Guisnes, near Calais. The place where they met was so beautifully decorated that it got the name of "The Field of the Cloth of Gold."

The Battle
of the Spurs,
1513

His war with Scotland—While Henry VIII. had been fighting in France, James IV., king of Scotland, was persuaded by the French king to invade England. The English army, led by the Earl of Surrey, however, met the Scots at a place called Flodden Field, a table-land on the eastern end of the Cheviot Hills, in 1513. Here a terrible battle was fought, in which the Scots

were defeated, and King James IV, with the flower of the Scotch nobility, was slain. Queen Margaret, widow of James IV., concluded peace, as regent for her infant son James V, with her brother Henry VIII. Nearly thirty years after this, war with Scotland again broke out. In 1542, Henry sent an army to invade Scotland. The Scots who opposed the English at Solway Moss, were totally defeated. Eight days after this battle, King James V died of a broken heart, leaving an infant daughter, the unhappy Mary, Queen of Scots, to succeed him. With a view to unite England and Scotland, Henry, in 1545, arranged for a marriage between his son Edward, Prince of Wales, and Mary.

Thomas Wolsey —At the beginning of Henry's reign, Thomas Wolsey was his chief adviser and minister. He is said to have been a butcher's son. But his liberal education and great ability made him the favourite of both the king and the Pope. In 1515, Henry made him Archbishop of York and Lord Chancellor of England. In the same year the Pope made him a Cardinal or Prince of the Church of Rome. He was also the Pope's legate or representative in England. Thus he soon rose to be the most powerful man in the Church and the State. He had a vast income and he used to live in a princely style. Out of his vast wealth he gave away largely to the poor, and built the College of Christ Church at Oxford. He was the most intimate friend of Henry, and without opposing him ruled him in everything. When, however, he failed

to procure the Pope's sanction to the king's proposal to divorce Catherine of Aragon, Henry got angry with him and dismissed him from the Chancellorship. He was next ordered to leave London and to retire to his see of York. In 1530, he was arrested on a charge of high treason, and on his way to London to answer the charges, he fell ill and died at Leicester Abbey. On his death-bed his last words were—

“Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I've served my King, He would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies”

The Reformation in England — The most important event in the reign of Henry VIII, was the introduction into England of the great religious movement of Europe, called the Reformation, which split up the followers of Christ into numerous sects.

In the early part of Henry's reign, a great change in religion was going on in Germany. This change was chiefly due to the preachings of a famous German scholar, named Martin Luther. Luther pointed out to his countrymen that the corrupt form of religion as prevalent in his time was very different from the old and pure form of religion as taught in the Bible. In 1517, he denounced a great many abuses of the Church of Rome. When the Pope of Rome tried to suppress his preaching in Germany, Luther refused to acknowledge him as the Supreme Head of the Church.

Martin Luther,
the great German
Reformer

Those who followed Luther and believed the doctrines which he taught, were known as the Protestants,

because they 'protested' or openly declared against the doctrines hitherto taught by the Pope. With the support of his followers, among whom were many German Princes, Luther soon succeeded in converting the whole of Germany to his new doctrines.

Henry VIII at first took the side of the Pope and wrote a book against Martin Luther, for which he received from the Pope the title of "Defender of the Faith"—a title

Henry VIII
the Defender
of the Faith

which has ever since been borne by the English sovereigns. But soon a quarrel broke out between Henry and the Pope, which greatly helped the cause of the Reformation in England. Henry VIII had, as we have seen, married his brother's widow, Catherine of Aragon. All the children she bore to him died except a sickly daughter, Princess Mary.

In 1527, Henry fell in love with a beautiful young lady, named Anne Boleyn, one of Catherine's maids of honour, and he wanted to marry her. He now began to doubt whether his marriage with Catherine, as being the widow of his brother, was legal, and so he applied to the Pope for a divorce. The Pope of Rome was, at this time,

The Divorce of
Queen Catherine

under the influence of the German Emperor Charles V, nephew of Catherine of Aragon, and as such he dared not do anything to displease Charles. At the same time the Pope did not like to displease so powerful a defender of the Church of Rome as Henry. And so he tried to delay the decision as long as possible. He sent a Cardinal to England to form a Court with Cardinal

Wolsey in order to decide whether the marriage had been lawful or not. In 1529, when the two Cardinals opened their Court in London, Catherine rose from her seat and instead of defending her cause before the Judges, threw herself at Henry's feet and appealed to him most piteously. But Henry remained unmoved. The Queen then refusing to submit to the Court, left the hall in anger, saying, "To God I commit my cause." She retired to a small country house near London, where she died seven years after. Though the Queen never again made her appearance in the Court, the trial went on for two months. Henry thought that Wolsey, whom he had raised to be the first man in the kingdom, would decide the case in his favour, but before the case was finished the Pope ordered that it should be tried before him at Rome. Henry now became very angry with the Pope and his legate Wolsey. He drove Wolsey from his Court and persuaded the Parliament to pass a series of laws against the authority of the Pope in England. The Parliament which met in 1529 and continued to hold its sessions till 1536, is known in history as the Reformation Parliament, for the laws passed by this Parliament enabled the English people to break finally from the Church of Rome. After settling all matters relating to the Church independently of the Pope, the king resolved that the divorce question should be decided by the Archbishop of Canterbury. Now the Archbishop of Canterbury was at this time a Cambridge scholar, named

The Reformation
Parliament,
1529-1536

Thomas Cranmer He was a weak and timid man, and he declared the king's marriage with Catherine invalid In 1534, an Act, called the Act of Supremacy, was passed by the Reformation Parliament, which declared Henry to be the only "Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England" The same Act made it treason to deny this new title of the king Two of the famous men of England, Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, a great statesman and author of *Utopia*, were sent to the Tower and afterwards executed, because they refused to acknowledge Henry as Supreme Head of the English Church.

To further the cause of the Reformation in England Henry, at the persuasion of his new minister, Thomas Cromwell, ordered the Bible to be translated from Latin into English The English Bible By a royal order, a copy of the English translation of the Bible was set up in every parish Church, so that all who chose might read

Henry VIII threw off the authority of the Pope, but he did not like to separate himself from the Church of Rome in doctrine He had no sympathy with the doctrines The Six Articles, 1539 preached by Martin Luther in Germany or by his followers in England In 1539, he drew up an Act, called the "Statute of Six Articles", which maintained the chief doctrines of the Church of Rome.

The Protestants who refused to subscribe to the Six Articles, were either burnt or hanged as heretics, while the Roman Catholics or those that still adhered to the

Pope of Rome, were also hanged as traitors, because they would not acknowledge the supremacy of Henry

Thomas Cromwell—The man who rose into the king's favour after the fall of Thomas Wolsey, was his servant Thomas Cromwell. Cromwell was very clever, and he helped the king to carry out his wishes. Henry now divorced Catherine and married Anne Boleyn, but he soon grew tired of her. In 1536, he accused her of being unfaithful to him, and ordered her head to be cut off. She left a daughter, named Princess Elizabeth. The day following Anne's unhappy death, Henry married another maid of honour, named Jane Seymour, who died in 1537, after giving birth to a son, Prince Edward. Intending to strengthen the Protestant cause in England, Cromwell persuaded Henry to marry a German princess, Anne of Cleves. But she was soon divorced, for she was not so good-looking as had been represented by Cromwell. Thinking that Cromwell had deceived him, Henry ordered him to be imprisoned and put to death.

The Suppression of the Monasteries—There were at this time in England more than six hundred monasteries or religious houses which were inhabited by monks and nuns who had taken upon them the vows to give up the world for the sake of religion. These monasteries were very rich, and Henry now coveted their wealth. Henry's favourite minister Thomas Cromwell advised the king to break up these monasteries on the plea that the inmates of these religious houses led very idle and

The Suppression
of
the Monasteries,
1536

icious lives. Following the advice of Cromwell, the king persuaded the Parliament to pass an Act which would empower him to pull down the monasteries and to take away their money and lands. The Act was passed in 1536, which put an end to the monasteries in England. The suppression of the monasteries brought an immense amount of wealth to the king's treasury, the greater portion of which he gave to the courtiers and nobles to win them over to his side.

The Pilgrimage of Grace, 1536 -- The suppression of the monasteries caused much discontent among the people in the North of England, who held the monks with special regard. They rose in arms under the leadership of a young lawyer, named Robert Aske. The object of the rising was to restore the old form of religion and to force the king to remove his evil counsellors. As the rebels rose on behalf of religion and displayed the figure of Christ on their banners, the movement was called the Pilgrimage of Grace. The rising was, however, soon put down with severe cruelty. Aske was arrested with many other leaders and executed.

Last days of Henry. After divorcing Anne of Cleves, Henry married for the fifth time an English lady, named Catherine Howard, in 1540. In 1542, she, like Anne Boleyn, was beheaded, as she proved unfaithful to the king. In the following year, he took Catherine Parr, a young widow, as his sixth wife. This lady had the good fortune to outlive her husband. Henry died in 1547, and was succeeded by his son, Edward

3 Edward VI (1547-1553)—Prince Edward was only nine years old, when he came to the throne. The king being young, the government of the country was placed into the hands of his maternal uncle, the Duke of Somerset.

War with Scotland—In the first year of his government, Somerset invaded Scotland for the purpose of compelling the Scots to give their young queen, Battle of Pinkie 1547 Mary, in marriage to Edward VI. The English won a victory at Pinkie, near Edinburgh, in 1547. But still the Scots would not agree to the marriage. The Queen of Scots was sent to France, where she became the bride of the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II.

Progress of the Reformation during the reign of Edward VI—The Duke of Somerset being a devout Protestant, the Reformation made considerable progress in this reign. He induced the Parliament to repeal the Statute of the Six Articles. He ordered the Catholic form of service to be abolished, and issued a new Prayer-Book in English. The images and pictures in the churches were also removed. These changes caused serious rebellions in Devonshire and Norfolk, which, however, were put down with utmost cruelty. During the regency of the Earl of Northumberland, who succeeded Somerset, the Reformation was carried still further. Besides Somerset and Northumberland, other persons who helped the cause of the Reformation in England were Cranmer, Archbishop

of Canterbury, Ridley, Bishop of London, Latimer, Bishop of Worcester and Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester

Earl of Northumberland—The Duke of Somerset soon grew unpopular, and was dismissed by the Parliament. He was succeeded by a selfish nobleman, John Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of that Dudley who had been one of Henry VII's agents for raising money from his subjects. Warwick who was now made Earl of Northumberland, soon caused Somerset to be beheaded on a charge of treason.

Edward fell ill of consumption, and Northumberland was eager to have a Protestant on the throne instead of Princess Mary who was a Roman Catholic by religion. He had married his son Dudley to Lady Jane Grey, grand-daughter of Edward's aunt Mary and her second husband Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. Northumberland now induced the king to set aside the claims of his two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, and to leave the crown by will to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, a devout Protestant. Edward died in 1553, at the age of sixteen.

4 Queen Mary (1553-1558)—After the death of Edward VI, Northumberland proclaimed Lady Jane Grey Queen of England. But the majority of the English people took the side of Mary who had been at Norfolk at the time of Edward VI's death. She soon marched to London and proclaimed herself Queen. Northumberland, Lady Jane Grey and her husband were all imprisoned and afterwards executed.

The Spanish Marriage and Wyatt's Rebellion, 1554.—Soon after her accession Mary desired to marry her cousin, Philip, King of Spain. Spain was, at this time, the richest and most powerful country in Europe. Philip was the son of Emperor Charles V and a firm supporter of the Catholic faith. The English people were bitterly opposed to the match. They feared that through this marriage England would become a province of Spain. Sir Thomas Wyatt, a gentleman of Kent, put himself at the head of Kentish men, and marched upon London to prevent Mary's marriage with Philip II. Wyatt was, however, soon captured and executed. When the rebellion was put down, King Philip came to England and was married to Queen Mary at Winchester in 1554.

Queen Mary's measures to bring back the English people to the Catholic Faith.—Queen Mary, who was an ardent Roman Catholic, naturally desired to suppress the Protestant faith, and to see her own faith restored in England. She induced the Parliament to repeal all the statutes of Edward VI.'s reign bearing upon religion. She then forbade the use of the Prayer-Book of Edward VI., and ordered the services in the church to be conducted in Latin instead of in English. She next drove away the Protestant clergy and put many of them in prison. After her marriage, she, acting under the advice of her husband, persuaded the Parliament to recognise the authority of the Pope and to put in force the statute of Henry IV. on the burning of heretics. To please her husband and the Pope, Mary began the persecution of her Protestant

subjects, thinking it to be the only lawful means to bring them back to the Catholic faith. The first victim of the persecution was Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, who was burned at the stake as a heretic. Bishop Latimer and Bishop Ridley who had greatly helped the spread of the Protestant faith in the last reign, were then burnt together at Oxford. "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley, play the man," cried Latimer, when in the midst of the fire, "We shall this day light such a candle in England, as, by the grace of God shall never be put out." Archbishop Cranmer was the next to suffer. Mary particularly hated him because it was he who had declared that Henry VIII had been illegally married to her mother. He was sentenced to death, but was told that his life would be spared if he would give up the Protestant faith. In a moment of weakness he gave in and signed a declaration that he had become a Catholic. As soon as the declaration was signed Mary ordered him to be burnt at Oxford. He met his end, however, with unflinching courage. When the fire was lighted, he first thrust his right hand into the flame, saying, in his deep voice, "This has offended—this unworthy hand!" In less than three years, nearly three hundred Protestants were burnt to death as heretics. For all these cruelties Queen Mary is known in history as the Bloody Mary.

Loss of Calais.—To please her husband, Mary declared war against France which resulted in the loss of Calais in 1558, the only town held by England in France. This loss proved fatal to the Queen, for

she died shortly after this event, leaving no child but a sister to succeed her

5 **Queen Elizabeth (1558-1603)**—Elizabeth, the youngest daughter of Henry VIII by his second wife Anne Boleyn, succeeded her sister in 1558 at the age of twenty-five. She was one of the ablest and most popular of English sovereigns. Though a learned and accomplished woman, she was extremely vain and fond of fine dress and coquetry.

Elizabeth and the Church. Restoration of Protestantism.—The Queen had no intention of allowing her people to remain in submission to the Pope. Her Parliament repealed the religious statutes enacted during Mary's reign, and re-enforced those that were passed in the reign of Edward VI. The Act of Supremacy announced her as the head of the Church, while the Act of Uniformity enforced the use of the Prayer-Book of Edward VI in a revised form on pain of fine and imprisonment. These religious measures of the Queen satisfied the majority of the English people, except the Catholics and a small body of extreme Protestants, called the Puritans, who thought it sinful to acknowledge the queen as the head of the Church. A Court of High Commission was established to compel the Puritans to observe the rules of the National Church.

Elizabeth and the unhappy Mary, Queen of Scots.—Mary, the beautiful queen of Scotland, was brought up from her childhood in the French Court, and

THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



Queen Elizabeth

was afterwards married to the French king, Francis II. On the death of her husband in 1560, she left the French Court and came back to her Scottish kingdom. Queen Mary was a Roman Catholic, while her subjects had lately accepted the reformed faith. The introduction of the Reformation in Scotland was due to the fiery preachings of the famous Scotch reformer, John Knox. Urged by Knox, the Scots had pulled down most of the old churches, got rid of all the old ceremonies and abolished the rule of the bishops over their church. The Church of Scotland was henceforth to be governed by little councils of ministers, called Presbyters, who were all equal in rank. It thus came to be known as the Presbyterian Church. As Mary wanted to restore her own faith in Scotland, her subjects naturally became displeased with her. Soon after her arrival in Scotland, Mary took her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, a Roman Catholic, as her second husband. At first they were very happy, and Mary gave birth to a little son. But soon she began to hate Darnley and to show favour to another Scotch nobleman, named Earl of Bothwell. In 1567, Darnley was murdered, and it was generally believed that Bothwell, incited by Mary, had committed the murder. A few weeks after Darnley's murder, Mary married Bothwell, and her subjects were struck with horror at such a marriage. They rose in rebellion against her, deposed her, shut her up in the Lochleven Castle and raised her infant son, James VI, then a child of one, to the throne.

The
Reformation
in Scotland

Queen Mary, however, contrived to make her escape, went to England and implored the protection of her cousin, Queen Elizabeth. Mary was a great granddaughter of Henry VII. She had already assumed the title of Queen of England, declaring that she had a better claim to the throne of England than Elizabeth whom she had declared illegitimate. Moreover, many of the English Roman Catholics looked upon Mary as the lawful Queen of England and Elizabeth as a usurper, for they generally maintained that Elizabeth's mother Anne Boleyn was not the true wife of Henry VIII. Elizabeth who was a jealous and shrewd woman, considered her a formidable rival and shut her up in prison.

Several plots were formed by the English Roman Catholics not only to release Mary from her prison but also to depose the Protestant Queen and to raise Mary on the throne of England. The most famous of these plots is known as the Babington Plot. Anthony Babington, a gentleman of fortune and a Roman Catholic, formed a conspiracy to murder Elizabeth and to make Mary queen in her place. The plot was, however, detected by Cecil and Walsingham, the two foremost and favourite ministers of Queen Elizabeth. The originators of the plot were tried and executed. It was afterwards found out that Mary had been implicated in this plot. Elizabeth took it as a pretext to get rid of her rival. She was tried, condemned to death and executed in February, 1587. Mary left her claim to the throne

of England not to her own son James who was a Protestant but to the daughter of Philip II, the bigoted Catholic king of Spain

War between England and Spain. The Invincible Armada — As a result of the discovery of the New World by Columbus, vast amount of wealth flowed into Spain from the West Indies, and thus Spain became, in course of time, the richest country in Europe. The other European nations also desired to share the treasures of the New World, but Spain stood in their way. English navigators like Francis Drake, John Hawkins and Martin Frobisher, however, crossed the Atlantic, made many voyages to the West Indies and plundered many Spanish vessels laden with treasures of the New World, in spite of the peace existing between England and Spain. Philip II complained against these acts of piracy, but in vain. A considerable portion of the wealth thus brought by these seamen Causes of the war went into the coffer of the Government for which Drake was rewarded with a knight hood. This coupled with Elizabeth's refusal to accept Philip II, as her husband, and the constant help she gave, with men and money, to the revolted subjects of Spain in the Netherlands, naturally kindled his wrath, and war between the two countries became inevitable.

In 1588, Philip II planned an invasion of England to enforce the claim of Mary, Queen of Scots, to the English throne, which she had bequeathed to his daughter at the time of her execution.

A gigantic Spanish fleet, which the boastful Philip had called in his pride the "Invincible Armada," and which consisted of 130 large and unwieldy ships with an army of about 22,000 men and with more than 2,350 cannon on board, set sail to conquer England in 1588. The mighty fleet was commanded by the Duke of Medina Sidonia, a brave and old Spanish soldier

The English were not lazy. As soon as the Armada came sailing towards England, all sections of the people—Catholics and Protestants alike—combined against the enemy forgetting, for the time being, all the differences in their religious creeds. The Queen was very busy too. She appeared in front of her soldiers at Tilbury Fort and addressed them thus: "I am come amongst you to lay down my life for my God, and for my kingdom and for my people. I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England too!" The English fleet, though smaller in number than the Spanish fleet, was lighter and better armed. It was commanded by Lord Howard of Effingham who was assisted by a number of veteran and daring captains like Sir Francis Drake, Hawkins and Frobisher.

When the Armada entered the English Channel, the English fleet hung on its heels, and fought with ease for a week inflicting heavy losses on the enemy. At last one night, the English Admiral sent a few fire-ships in the midst of the unwieldy Armada lying near Calais

The very sight of the fire-ships caused confusion and disorder in the Spanish fleet which began to make off. Just at this moment a great storm broke out, which scattered all the Spanish ships, and destroyed a great number of them. Out of the 130 Spanish ships which composed the Armada, only fifty-four returned to Spain in a shattered condition, and thus ended the great expedition by means of which Philip II intended to conquer England.

Rout of the
Armada

With the failure of this expedition the naval supremacy of Spain came to an end, and England became the supreme naval power of Europe.

Irish Affairs The whole of Ireland, excepting a small strip of land in the south-east, called the 'English Pale', was ruled over by native chiefs under English suzerainty. The Irish were Roman Catholics, and in this reign they revolted under their leader, Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, against the English supremacy and were helped by Philip II with men and money.

The Irish at first gained a battle at Black Water, in Tyrone, 1598, but afterwards the English succeeded in subduing the Irish leader and bringing the country under English rule.

Battle of Black
Water, 1598

Material Progress during Elizabeth's time—The reign of Queen Elizabeth occupies a brilliant chapter of English history. Her reign is famous for great discoveries by sea. Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman who sailed round the world. Sir Walter Raleigh, a great soldier and famous writer, also won a name by

establishing a colony on the coast of the North America, which was named Virginia after the Virgin Queen. It was Sir Walter who first brought tobacco and potatoes into England.

Her reign, is also noted for the 'noon-day splendour of English literature. William Shakespeare, the greatest English dramatist, flourished in this reign, and wrote several excellent plays including "Hamlet," "Macbeth," "Julius Caesar" and "The Merchant of Venice." He was followed by a train of dramatists like Greene, Marlowe and Ben

Jonson. Sir Philip Sidney and Spenser embellished the poetical literature by their famous works "Arcadia" and "The Fairy Queen" respectively. The prose literature also received a great development in the hands of Bacon, Sir Walter Raleigh, Hooker and others.

Trade and commerce also began to flourish. On 31st December, 1599, Queen Elizabeth granted a Charter to a body of English merchants, known as the English East India Company, to trade with India and the adjoining islands. This Trading Company afterwards became the rulers of this vast Indian Empire.

The country became prosperous in other respects also. The people built better houses, and lived and dressed in better style than before. The *Poor Laws* were first passed in this reign, which required every parish to support its unemployed members.

Death of Elizabeth.—Queen Elizabeth, the last of the five Tudor Sovereigns, died in 1603, at the good old age of seventy. Her reign lasted for forty-five years. After her death, the crown passed to the Stuart family, in the person of James VI of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—When Henry VII began his rule in England, Sekundur Lodi, son of Bahlul Lodi, the founder of the Lodi dynasty, was ruling in India. He extended the Pathan Empire almost over Northern India. But after his death, his son, Ibrahim Lodi, began to rule like a despot. During the reign of Henry VIII., India underwent great changes in her political life. Ibrahim Lodi, son and successor of Sekundur Lodi, proved to be a worthless despot. So the great nobles of the kingdom revolted and one of them invited the Mogul Sultan Babar, who had been at that time ruling over Kabul, to come and free them from the oppression of Ibrahim. Babar at once came and defeated Ibrahim at the battle of Panipat in 1526. With the defeat of Ibrahim at Panipat, India passed into the hands of the Moguls. Babar ruled over Delhi for four years only. He died in 1530, and was succeeded by his beloved son, Humayun, who was not a powerful prince like his father. Taking advantage of his weakness, Sher Khan, a Pathan Jagirdar of Behar, revolted against him and twice defeated him at Buxar and Kanauj. After his defeat at Kanauj, Humayun fled

Babar, 1520-1530

First Battle of
Panipat, 1526

Humayun,
1530-1540
1555-1556

from his kingdom, and Sher Khan ascended the throne

Sher Shah, of Delhi under the title of Sher Shah

1450-1545

Sher ruled the country wisely for five years. He reformed the abuses that had crept into the various branches of the administration. He made a high road from Bengal to the Punjab and established a system of horse-posts. When Edward VI ascended the throne

Successors of of England, the successors of Sher

Sher Shah

Shah were ruling over Delhi. They were all weak princes. So revolts and civil wars broke out throughout the country. When Queen Mary succeeded her brother in England, Humayun re-entered India, defeated the Pathan Army at Sirhind and once more proclaimed himself Emperor of Delhi (1555). But he died only after six months, and

Akbar the Great, was succeeded by his son Akbar, a boy

1556-1605

of thirteen years. So Bairam Khan, a powerful general of Humayun, was made guardian of the boy king. The Pathans once more tried to measure their strength with the Moguls,

but they were defeated in the second

Second Battle
of Panipat, 1556

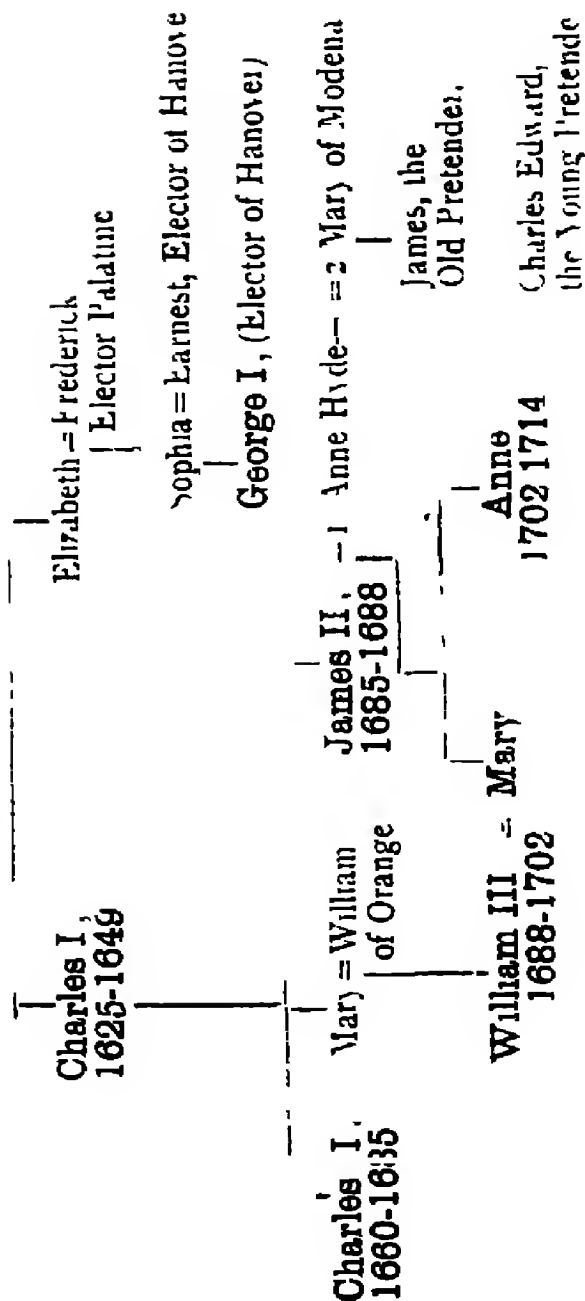
battle of Panipat, in 1556. In 1560

Akbar took the reins of government into his own hands. He was a contemporary of Queen Elizabeth of England. He extended the Mogul Empire far and wide. Guzerat, Bengal, Kashmir, Sind, Kandahar, Berar and part of Ahmadnagar easily fell into his hands one by one. All the Rajput princes, except Uday Singh of Mewar, submitted to Akbar. Akbar marched against Uday and succeeded in wresting

Chitor, the capital of Mewar, from him. Uday, however, did not yield but fled to the Aravalli Hills, where he founded a new capital called Udaipur. After his death, his brave son, Rana Pratap, succeeded in recovering nearly the whole of his possessions. After his conquest of both Northern and Southern India, Akbar divided his empire into fifteen *subas* or provinces, over each of which he appointed a *subadar* or governor. Several great men flourished in the reign of Akbar. Of these the financier Todar Mull thoroughly reformed the revenue system of India, claiming one-third of the gross produce as the king's share. The historian Abul Fazal was another great man who adorned his Court. He wrote a history of the reign of Akbar. Akbar was the greatest of all the Muhammadan sovereigns of India. He adopted the policy of conciliation, and thus succeeded in winning the hearts of both his friends and foes. He reformed the several social abuses of the Hindus, and regarded all religions with equal veneration. He died in 1603, and was succeeded by his son Selim.

SOVEREIGNS OF THE HOUSE OF STUART, 1603-1714

James I,
1603-1625



CHAPTER X.

England Under the House of Stuarts.

1 **James I (1603—1625)** — James VI. of Scotland, the son of the ill-fated Mary, Queen of Scots, who succeeded Elizabeth with the title of James I. of England, was the nearest heir to the throne, for he was the great-grandson of Margaret Tudor, a daughter of Henry VII. With the accession of James to the throne of England, the two countries were united for the first time, though for the next hundred years the laws and institutions of each remained separate. James being a Stuart on his father's side, the line of kings which now came to rule over England, is known as the Stuart dynasty. He was ungainly in person, and allowed himself to be led by his favourites. He was well-read, but vainly conceited and pedantic. He earned the nick-name of 'the wisest fool in Europe'. He wanted to rule England on the theory of the "Divine Right of Kings". He considered himself God's Vicegerent on earth, and believed that he was responsible not to any earthly authority, but to God alone, and that he had absolute power over his subjects, their laws and customs. He, therefore, considered it beneath his dignity to yield to the opinions of the Parliament. The result was a long and bitter contest between the king and Parliament. He often called and dissolved Parliaments, and for seven years ruled without any.

Union of the English and Scottish Crowns

His character

The Doctrine of Divine Right of Kings

These arbitrary acts, on the part of James, paved the way for the great Civil War in the next reign, which ended in the execution of the English sovereign.

James and the Puritans—The Puritans cherished high hopes of getting religious concessions from James who had been brought up as a Presbyterian, and accordingly presented a petition to the king. James invited some leading Puritans to a conference with the English bishops to be held before himself at Hampton Court, a beautiful village on the Thames. But nothing came out of this conference to satisfy the Puritans. All that they could get out of this conference, was a New Translation of the Bible. Many of the Puritans, however, finding that they could get no toleration from James, left England for ever, sailed away in a ship called the *Mayflower*, and founded settlements on the eastern seaboard of North America. These men are known as the Pilgrim Fathers, and their settlements afterwards came to be known as the New England States of America.

James and the Catholics—**The Gun-Powder Plot, 1605**—The English Roman Catholics also entertained hopes that James, being the son of a Catholic mother, would restore their religion. But they too were disappointed. Severe and cruel laws against the Catholics were put into force. Driven to despair, a number of reckless Catholics made a wicked plan to blow up the

king and all the members of Parliament with gunpowder, on November 5, 1605. The prime movers of this plot were Robert Catesby and Guy Fawkes. The plot was, however, detected in time. Guy Fawkes was found under the vault of the Houses of Parliament with a great many barrels of gunpowder. Catesby, Guy Fawkes and all the conspirators were put to death.

Foreign Policy of James — James wanted to be a great peace-maker in Europe. Just after his accession to the throne, he made peace with Spain. James had two sons, when he came to the English throne. But the eldest, Prince Henry, died in 1611. To make the tie of peace closer and stronger, he now wished to marry his second son, Charles, to the Infanta of Spain. But his English subjects did not like that their future king should be married to a Spanish princess. James did not pay heed to the opinions of his English subjects, and sent Charles with his favourite, the Duke of Buckingham, to Madrid to win the Infanta.

James's only daughter, Elizabeth, was married to a German Prince, Frederick, the Elector Palatine of Bavaria. In 1618, the Protestants of Bohemia revolted against the Catholic Emperor of Germany, and chose Frederick, Elector of Palatine, as their king. The king of Spain and other Catholic princes of Europe joined the Emperor against the Protestants. This is known in European history as the Thirty Years' War. Very early in the war, Frederick not only lost Bohemia but was also driven out of

The Gun-Powder
Plot, 1605

The beginning
of the Thirty
Years' War

the Palatinate. He fled with his wife to England and asked for help from the English. The English were ready to help him, but James wanted to remain neutral, and requested the king of Spain and other Catholic princes to stop fighting against his son-in-law and to restore him to his Palatinate. The king of Spain did not pay any heed to the request of James. In the meantime, Prince Charles returned to England being disgusted at the behaviour of the Spanish king and refused to marry the Infanta. So the hateful marriage negotiations suddenly fell through, to the great joy of the English people. In 1624, the Parliament met and granted enough money to carry on a war with Spain. An expedition was sent to help Frederick, but it was a total failure (1625). James died of a broken heart, when he heard the news of the disaster which befell the expedition.

Some other important events in his reign—The Charter of the English East India Company was renewed by James in 1609, and in 1615, he sent an ambassador, Embassy of
Sir Thomas
Roe, 1615 named Sir Thomas Roe, to the Court of Jahangir, the then Emperor of India, to obtain some trading privileges for the East India Company. The English ambassador was received with honour, and he succeeded in carrying out his mission.

Sir Walter Raleigh who served Queen Elizabeth so faithfully and won a name in her reign, was accused, in the very beginning of this reign, of having conspired

to raise Arabella Stuart, James's first cousin, to the throne and was committed to the Tower.

He remained in the Tower for twelve Main Plot years, during which time he wrote his famous "History of the World" In 1616, he was let out of prison on the promise of bringing a large amount of gold to the Royal Treasury from some gold mines of Guinea, in South America When he reached the place, he was opposed by the Spaniards, and had to return empty-handed after destroying some Spanish villages On his return to England, the Spanish Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh government complained that he was guilty of piracy, and to please Spain, Raleigh was executed in 1618

James I died in 1625, and was succeeded by his second son, Charles

2 Charles I (1625-1649)—The reign of Charles I lasted for twenty-four years, from 1625 to 1649 Charles I was very badly trained by his father He relied too much on his favourites and on the doctrine of the "Divine Right of Kings" Moreover, he was very obstinate and insincere Soon after his accession he displeased his subjects by marrying Henrietta Maria, a daughter of Henry IV of France and a Roman Catholic.

First fifteen years of Charles's reign—From the very commencement of his reign, Charles I. began to rule like a tyrant He began to levy taxes without the consent of the Parliament Accordingly a series

of long and bitter contests ensued between him and the Parliament. Every year the feeling between them grew worse and worse. In 1628, the Commons assembled in Parliament to resist the king's arbitrary government.

The Petition of Right, 1628

They drew up a document, called the Petition of Right, and insisted that Charles should agree to and sign it. The Petition demanded that the king should not impose taxes and loans without the consent of Parliament, that no man should be imprisoned by order of the king without giving a reason, that soldiers or sailors should not be billeted or quartered on private persons against their will, and that no person should in time of peace be tried by martial law. Charles was compelled to agree to and sign the Petition against his will. The Petition of Right has been called the Second Great Charter of English liberties.

Charles I was, however, not true to his words. He soon began to impose taxes without the consent of the Parliament and to seize the goods of those who refused to pay. For the next eleven years (1629-40) Charles ruled without a Parliament. During this period he was advised by the Earl of Strafford and Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. These two men were bent on making Charles an absolute monarch. Their policy was known as the *Policy of Thorough*, which meant that they intended to thoroughly ruin any one who would dare to oppose the king. The two instruments through which they exercised their power were the Court of Star Chamber and

the Court of High Commission The former fined and imprisoned men who would not pay the king's illegal demands or who spoke ill of the policy of the king The latter tried offences against the established religion.

There was a tax, called 'Ship-Money', which had been raised in the sea-port towns from very early times for maintaining a fleet Charles now intended to use this tax for his own purpose In 1634, he demanded it from the inland towns also. As the tax was imposed at the mere will and pleasure of the king without the consent of Parliament, a Buckinghamshire gentleman, named John * Hampden, Ship Money and John Hampden refused to pay it He was arrested and brought before the judges for trial Although the judges decided in favour of the Crown, the English people thought Hampden was right and regarded him as a hero

In 1637, Charles's Scottish subjects became highly displeased when he, by the advice of Laud, tried to force the Scottish Church to use the English Prayer-Book The Scottish people formed the National Covenant, by which they bound themselves to resist any attempt to meddle with their religion, and declared war against him Charles advanced with an army to subdue the Scottish people, but he was compelled to make peace with them, as he had very little money to continue the war

The Long Parliament —Charles was heavily pressed for money, and so in 1640 he summoned a Parliament

to vote him money This Parliament which is known in history as the Long Parliament, met on November 3, 1640. It sat for a very long time, and was dissolved in 1660 The Commons who were opposed to the king, at once proceeded to impeach Laud and Strafford, which resulted in their execution After the execution of Laud and Strafford, the Commons abolished the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission They then drew up a paper, called the Grand Remonstrance, in which they clearly set forth all the king's acts of tyranny and demanded the appointment of ministers by Parliament Highly displeased with the conduct of the Commons, Charles tried to capture five leading members of the Parliament The five members, however, fled, but it showed that Charles meant to resort to force

Abolition of the
Courts of Star
Chamber and
High Commission

The Grand
Remonstrance

The Great Civil War, 1642-1649 —Charles now left London and went to collect his supporters He also sent the Queen with the crown-jewels to Holland to buy arms At last, in August 1642, he raised his standard at Nottingham, as a sign of his declaration of war against the Parliament So civil war began The followers of the king, who were mostly the nobles and country gentlemen, were called Cavaliers, because they were composed chiefly of horse soldiers Those that espoused the cause of the Parliament, were generally merchants and tradesmen, and were known as Roundheads, as most of them used to wear their hair cropped short In the beginning of the war, the

Royalists were victorious, but as soon as a Huntingdonshire gentleman, named Oliver Cromwell, Oliver Cromwell was put in command of the Parliamentary forces, the Royalists failed to gain a single victory. Cromwell had carefully trained and disciplined his own soldiers who received the name of Cromwell's Ironsides. He now reorganised the whole army on the model of his "Ironsides". This reorganised army, better known as the New Model Army, defeated the Royalists at Naseby, not far from Northampton, in 1645. The king then fled to Wales, but soon after, he surrendered to the Scots at Newark, who gave him over to the Parliament on receiving a large sum of money. Trial and Execution of Charles I 1649 Charles was accordingly made a prisoner. Not long after, the New Model Army quarrelled with the Long Parliament. The Parliament was anxious to come to terms with the king, provided he would govern according to the will of the people, the army, on the other hand, wanted to have no king at all and to set up a republic instead. But this quarrel between the army and the Parliament enabled Charles to escape from his imprisonment and take refuge in the Isle of Wight. Charles now appealed to the Irish and the Scots. The latter invaded England on his behalf. In 1648, a battle was fought at Preston, in Lancashire, in which the Scots were defeated by Cromwell. Charles was again captured and imprisoned. The army was now all-powerful. They demanded that the king should be tried on the charge of levying war against the people of England.

Accordingly he was brought to trial before a so-called High Court of Justice, which condemned him to death. He was executed at Whitehall on January 30, 1649.

The Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649-1660 — The execution of Charles I was followed by the abolition of the monarchical form of government in England. A republic, better known as the Commonwealth, was thus set up in the country. The House of Lords was also abolished.

The Irish and the Scots, however, disclaimed the authority of the Commonwealth, and proclaimed the late king's eldest son king under the title of Charles II. Cromwell crossed over to Ireland and completely crushed the Royalist Party in nine months. Meanwhile the young king, Charles II, had arrived at Edinburgh. Cromwell now marched into Scotland and totally defeated the Scots at Dunbar (September 3, 1650). In 1651, Charles invaded England and advanced as far as Worcester, where he was met and defeated by Cromwell. Charles then escaped to France.

After the subjugation of the Irish and the Scots, Cromwell became very powerful.

In 1653, he was chosen Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He called a Parliament, but finding it very troublesome, he soon dissolved it and began to rule without any. Backed by the army, he now became more despotic than Charles I. had been. He divided England into ten large districts, over each of

which he placed a soldier with the title of Major-General. As Cromwell was a Puritan, he forbade the public use of the Prayer-Book and the religious ceremonies of the Established Church. But the foreign policy of Cromwell brought him lasting fame. After the death of Queen Elizabeth, England had lost most of her influence and honour on the Continent. Cromwell, however, made the name of England once more dreaded and respected abroad.

Cromwell's
Foreign Policy

He compelled the Dutch or the people of Holland, who declared war on England in 1652, to sue for peace, and to pay a large sum of money for the mischief they had done. During the course of this Dutch war, the English Admiral, Robert Blake, earned his reputation by defeating the Dutch in several naval battles. Admiral Blake at once proceeded to break the maritime power of Spain. He sailed away to Tenerife, one of the Canary Islands, and destroyed the Spanish treasure-ships, lying in the harbour of Santa Cruz. The brave Admiral, however, died at sea, as his ship was entering Plymouth Harbour. In the course of this war Cromwell took the West Indian Island of Jamaica and the sea-port of Dunkirk, on the Flemish coast, from the Spaniards. Oliver Cromwell died in 1658, and was succeeded by his son, Richard Cromwell.

Weak and gentle as he was, Richard was quite unfit to rule, and so he resigned his office in eight months. The resignation of Richard Cromwell was followed by confusion and several Royalist risings. At this juncture, General Monk, a secret Royalist, then

commanding the forces in Scotland, marched to London with an army at his back, and secured the restoration of the Stuarts in the person of Charles II, who had so long been an exile on the Continent.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—Soon after the accession of James I to the throne of England, his Indian contemporary, Selim, son of Akbar, succeeded

Jahangir
1605 1627

his father under the title of Jahangir or Conqueror of the World. His eldest son, Khusru, who tried to seize the throne after Akbar's death, failed in his attempt. His third son, Prince

Mewar and
Ahmadnagar
submitted

Khurram, not only compelled Rana Amar Sinha, son of Pratap Sinha of Mewar, to sue for peace but also succeeded in subduing Ahmadnagar in 1621. For his brilliant military career, Jahangir conferred on Prince Khurram the title of Shah Jahan or King of the World.

Meanwhile, Jahangir married a beautiful Persian widow, named Nur Jahan, who, after her marriage, became the real ruler of the country. She tried to secure the succession for the youngest son of Jahangir, named Prince Shahryar, who had married a daughter of Nur Jahan by her

Shah Jahan,
1628 1658

former husband. On the death of Jahangir in 1627, Shah Jahan succeeded in defeating and killing Shahryar and in proclaiming himself Emperor at Agra. He was a

Annexation of
Ahmadnagar,
1637

contemporary of Charles I, as well as of Oliver Cromwell. After his accession, he annexed Ahmadnagar to the Mogul

Empire and made peace with Bijapur and Golconda. But he lost Kandahar which was taken from him by the Persians. In 1657, ^{Loss of Kandahar, 1648} he fell ill, and there began a quarrel for the succession among his four sons, which resulted in the accession of Aurangzeb, the third son of the Emperor, to the throne of Delhi in 1658. Aurangzeb kept his father in confinement till death.

The English East India Company which was founded in 1600 to trade with India and the adjoining islands, established their first factory at Surat in 1612. In 1615, the Company obtained certain trading privileges from the Emperor, ^{Progress of the English East India Company} as the result of Sir Thomas Roe's embassy to the Court of Jahangir. In the reign of Shah Jahan, the Company established factories in Bengal with the permission of the Emperor. In 1639, they also bought from the Raja of Chandragiri the present site of the city of Madras.

Two famous French travellers, Bernier and Tavernier, came to visit India in the reign of Shah Jahan, and they remained for sometime in this country. They left a valuable account ^{Bernier and Tavernier} of the political, social and commercial condition of India of the time. Bernier was afterwards appointed a physician by Aurangzeb, and so he had the special opportunity of studying the policy and character of that Emperor.

CHAPTER XI

England under the Restored House of Stuarts.

1. **Charles II (1660-1685)**—At the instance of General Monk, the Long Parliament was formally dissolved, and a new Parliament, known as the Convention Parliament, was convened, which invited Charles II to come to England, and to accept the crown. On the 29th of May, 1660, Charles entered London, and was crowned amidst joyous acclamations. He was a selfish, heartless, and unprincipled monarch. He cared little for morality or religion and was too much given to sensual pleasures. Still he was loved by his people because of the misfortunes of his House and of the Puritan tyranny from which he saved his people.

The Restoration

Character of
Charles II

The Restoration Settlement—In 1660, the Act of Indemnity was passed which granted a general pardon to those who had fought against Charles I, except those that had directly taken part in the execution of the late king. The bodies of Cromwell and other leaders of the Commonwealth, were taken out of their graves and hung on the gallows at Tyburn Gate. The army was disbanded except a few regiments which were kept as a bodyguard of the king. This is the *nucleus* of the Standing Army in England. The Church of England, with

Work of the
Restoration
Parliament

Prayer-Book and bishops, was restored as it had existed before the Civil War.

The Clarendon Ministry, 1660-1667 —For the first seven years of his reign the Earl of Clarendon became the chief minister of the king Anne, daughter of Lord Clarendon, afterwards married the king's brother, James, Duke of York In 1662, Charles, by the advice of Clarendon, sold to the French king, Louis XIV, the sea-port of Dunkirk, which had been conquered by Oliver Cromwell The English people became very angry at this transaction of the king In the same year, the king married the Infanta of Portugal, and obtained, as a part of her dowery, two fortresses—Tangiers in Morocco and Bombay in India A few years later, Charles made over Bombay to the English East India Company The Company now removed their factories from Surat to Bombay which from this time became their headquarters in the western part of India

The majority of the English people belonged to the National Church of England Those who were not members of the National Church, namely the Puritans and the Presbyterians, now came to be known as the Dissenters or the Non-Conformists They were so called, because they dissented from and could not conform to the doctrines of the Church of England The Earl of Clarendon, who was a staunch friend of the Church of England, passed a series of penal laws, better known as the Clarendon Code, against these Dissenters They were not only forbidden

The Dissenters
or the Non
Conformists

The Clarendon
Code

to offer religious worship in their own private chapels, but were also prevented from teaching in schools and coming within five miles of a town. Nearly two thousand clergymen had to leave their churches and homes, because they would not agree to use the Book of Common Prayer.

Three great disasters befell England during the ministry of Lord Clarendon. The first
The Great Plague, 1665 was the Great Plague which visited London in 1665. It carried away about one-third of the population. Next year came the second
The Great Fire, 1666 disaster, the Great Fire of London, which lasted three days and nights. A considerable part of London was reduced to ashes, and the sufferings of the poor who were deprived of their homes, knew no bounds. These two disasters were followed by a third. Since 1665 war with Holland had been going on, on account of the commercial rivalry between the two countries. In June, 1667, the
The Dutch in the Medway, 1667 Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway and burnt several English ships lying in the dockyard of Chatham. A month later, however, peace was concluded with Holland, by which the English gained possession of the Dutch Settlement of New Amsterdam, in North America, which was afterwards called New York, in honour of the king's brother, the Duke of York, at this time Lord High Admiral of England. The success of the Dutch fleet, however, led to the fall of Clarendon who, for fear of impeachment, fled to France, where he remained for the rest of his life.

The Cabal Ministry, 1667-1673 —After the disgrace of Clarendon, a new ministry, called the Cabal Ministry, was formed. The new ministry derived its name from the initial letters of the names of the five members who composed it, namely, Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury) and Lauderdale.

The first important act of this ministry was the formation of the Triple Alliance in 1668. Louis XIV, the Roman

The Triple
Alliance, 1668

Catholic king of France, made war upon the Protestant kingdom of Holland. To oppose him, the three Protestant kingdoms of England, Holland and Sweden, formed an alliance. Although England took the side of Holland against France, her king, Charles, concluded a secret treaty at Dover with the king of

France, by which he promised to make war on Holland, to become a Catholic,

The
Secret Treaty
of Dover, 1670

and to re-establish Roman Catholicism in his kingdom. In return he was to receive an annual pension of £200,000 from Louis. This was the most disgraceful event in the annals of England. The Parliament granted Charles sufficient money to fight for Holland, but he employed it to fight against her, for he openly joined Louis and declared war against the Dutch in 1672.

The Declaration of Indulgence, 1672 —To carry out his secret promise to Louis XIV of re-establishing Roman Catholicism in England, Charles, in 1672, issued a Declaration of Indulgence, by which he suspended all the penal laws against the Catholics and the Dissenters,

and allowed them to worship as they liked. But when the Parliament raised an objection against this Declaration, Charles was compelled to withdraw it. The Parliament then passed the Test Act which required all civil and military officers to take the oath of supremacy and allegiance, to declare that they belonged to the Established Church, and to disapprove the doctrines of the Catholic Faith. The king's brother, James, Duke of York, who had been a Catholic, at once resigned his post as Lord High Admiral, and the two secret Catholic members of the Cabal, namely, Clifford and Arlington, had also to retire from office. This led to the break-up of the Cabal Ministry of Charles II.

The Danby Ministry, 1673-1678 —The Cabal Ministry was followed by the appointment of the Earl of Danby by Charles II as his chief minister. He concluded a peace with Holland, and cemented it by his arrangement of marriage between Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, and William, Prince of Orange, the son of the king's eldest sister. At this time, a man of infamous character, named Titus Oates, informed the Parliament of the existence of a Roman Catholic plot to kill the king with all the Protestant ministers and to restore the Catholic form of government. Alarmed at this information, the Parliament executed some of the innocent Catholics and imprisoned a large number of them. Soon after the discovery of this plot, Louis XIV of France, being displeased with the king of England

The Test Act,
1673

"The Popish
Plot", 1678

for his recent treaty with Holland, advised his ambassador to make known to Parliament the conditions of the secret treaty between him and Charles. The whole nation stood aghast at the information, and at once proceeded to impeach the king's minister, Danby, who had been aware of these secret transactions. To save his minister, Charles at once dissolved his Parliament

The last six years of Charles II's reign -- For the last six years of his reign Charles ruled without a minister. The new Parliament of 1679 brought in a bill to exclude the Duke of York from the throne, because he was a Roman Catholic, and to settle the succession in favour of the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II. This bill is known as the Exclusion Bill. The whole country was now divided into two opposite parties, the Petitioners or the Whigs, who were in favour of the bill, and the Abhorrrers or the Tories who were against the bill. The bill, however, was thrown out of the House of Lords, and Charles dissolved Parliament.

The Exclusion
Bill, 1679

Whigs and
Tories

The Habeas Corpus Act, 1679 -- The most important work of the Parliament of 1679 was the passing of the famous law, known as the Habeas Corpus Act, which provided that no one should be kept in prison for a very long period without being brought to trial. *Habeas Corpus* is a Latin phrase, meaning, "*You must produce the person.*" Hence it is the name of a writ or warrant issued by a judge to the jailor who has

charge of any prisoner, ordering him to produce him for trial

The Rye-House Plot, 1683—When the Exclusion Bill was thrown out of the Parliament, a few reckless Whigs made a wicked plan to murder the king and his brother, the Duke of York, on their way from New Market to London, at a place, called the Rye-House, and then to place the Duke of Monmouth on the throne of England. The plot was, however, detected, and some of the conspirators were put to death.

Death of Charles II, 1685—Charles died of apoplexy in 1685. On his death-bed he declared himself a Roman Catholic. He was succeeded by his brother, James, Duke of York. The reign of Charles will ever remain memorable for the rapid progress of English literature and science. John Milton, the greatest of the English poets, published his famous work, "Paradise Lost", in 1667. John Dryden, another great English poet and dramatist, wrote numerous plays and poems in this reign. The Earl of Clarendon, one of Charles's ministers, wrote the "History of the Great Rebellion." John Locke, a great English philosopher and John Bunyan, author of the "Pilgrim's Progress", also flourished in this reign. The Royal Society was also founded in 1662 for the cultivation of science.

2 James II. (1685-1688)—The reign of James II. lasted for only three years. James was a narrow-

minded and obstinate ruler. Moreover, he was a staunch Roman Catholic, while the majority of his subjects were Protestants.

Rebellion of Monmouth, and the Bloody Assizes, 1685—Taking advantage of this unfavourable position of James, the Duke of Monmouth, a favourite of the people, landed in Dorsetshire to claim the throne, and proceeded towards London. On his way the royal army met him at Sedgemoor, near Bridge-water, in Battle of Sedgemoor, 1685 Somersetshire, where a contested battle was fought resulting in the capture of Monmouth. He was taken to London, where he was tried and executed. James then sent a very hard-hearted judge, named Jeffreys, to the west of England to try those who had taken part in the recent rebellion. To please James, Jeffreys ordered more than 300 men to be executed, and over 800 men to be sold as slaves to the West Indies. This The Bloody Assizes, 1685 is known in history as the Bloody Assizes. As a reward for his services, Jeffreys was raised to the peerage and made Lord High Chancellor of England.

Arbitrary Government of James II—After the suppression of the rebellion, James set his heart upon ruling the nation like a despot. He declared that he, as king, was above the law of the realm, and thus he might dispense with it at his own sweet pleasure. He repealed the Habeas Corpus Act, set aside the Test Act, and appointed Roman Catholics in the civil and

military departments of the Government. He revived the Court of High Commission, and twice issued the Declaration of Indulgence, thereby suspending all the penal laws against the Dissenters and the Catholics.

The Declaration
of Indulgence

James ordered the clergy to read the second Declaration in all their churches at the time of divine service. A petition against this illegal order was drawn up, signed and presented to James by Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, and six other bishops. When the petition was laid before James, he cried out in a rage,

Trial of the Seven
Bishops, 1688

"This is flat rebellion." The Seven Bishops were then sent to the Tower, and afterwards brought to trial on a charge of publishing sedition, but they were acquitted by the judges, to the great joy of the English people.

The Glorious Revolution of 1688.—James's first wife, Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, died in 1671. She left two daughters, Mary who married William, Prince of Orange, and Anne who married Prince George of Denmark. In 1673, James married a Catholic Princess, named Mary of Modena. In 1688, two days after the arrest of the Bishops, Mary of

Birth of the
"Old Pretender"

Modena gave birth to a son, James Francis Edward, who was afterwards known as the Old Pretender. Up to this time the English people had been patiently enduring the tyrannical rule of James in the hope that everything would be set right in the reign of his

successor, Princess Mary, who was a Protestant. Now when they saw that this new-born son of James, who would certainly be brought up as a Catholic, was the next heir to the throne, they at once resolved to get rid of the tyrannical rule of James and to place Mary and her husband, William, Prince of Orange, on the throne. On the day on which the Seven Bishops were acquitted, an invitation by some of the leading men of England was sent to William of Orange, requesting him to come Call to William of Orange over to England, to deliver the country from the tyrannical rule of a Papist, and to take up the government into his own hands. Accordingly, William landed at Torbay on the 5th day of November, 1688, and marched towards London. James's friends, supporters and even his soldiers deserted him. James fled to France, where he was received by the French king with great generosity.

The Bill of Rights, 1689 — When James II fled from the kingdom, a Convention Parliament which met in January, 1689, declared William and Mary as joint sovereigns. To put an end to the long-standing struggle between the Crown and the Parliament, a very important document, called the Declaration of Rights, was then drawn The Declaration of Rights, 1689 up, and to this William and Mary gave their consent. It declared that no king in future should rule without a Parliament, that the king should not dispense with the laws of the realm without the consent of the Parliament, and that no Roman Catholic

should ever again hold the crown of England. The Declaration of Rights was embodied in the Bill of Rights, which was passed in 1689 by the first Parliament of William and Mary.

3 William III and Mary (1689-1694) — William III (alone, 1694-1702) — After his accession to the throne of England, William III had to face two very grave dangers. James II had a large number of followers and adherents, known as the Jacobites. The Jacobites of Scotland, headed by Viscount Dundee, now revolted against William and Mary, and gained a great victory over the royal army, at the Battle of Killiecrankie, 1689, at the pass of Killiecrankie in 1689. But the death of their leader ultimately led to their submission to William and Mary.

The Roman Catholics of Ireland also took up arms in favour of James II. Backed by men and money from the king of France, James landed in Ireland and was received with great joy. The Irish Protestants who stood by William and Mary, fled to Londonderry for safety, where they were closely besieged by the forces of James in 1689. The forces of William came to relieve them after more than three months. In the following year, William's forces defeated James at the battle of the Boyne. After this defeat James went back to France. A treaty was afterwards concluded with the Irish Catholics at Limerick, by which they accepted William III and Mary as their sovereigns.

War with France and the Treaty of Ryswick, 1697 — After the suppression of the Irish rebellion, William resolved to fight with Louis XIV. of France not only because he was a dreadful enemy to Holland, but also because he helped James II with men and money to regain his throne. A long and protracted war was fought, in the course of which the English Admiral, Russel, severely defeated the French in a naval engagement off La Hogue, in Normandy. In 1697, Louis XIV was obliged to make a treaty with William at Ryswick, by which he agreed to recognize William as King of Great Britain, and promised not to help James any longer.

Butle of La
Hogue, 1692

Treaty of
Ryswick 1697

William's Home Government — When William was badly in need of money to carry on his war with France, a Whig statesman, named Charles Montague, persuaded Parliament to invite the rich to lend money to the Government for which they would get the annual interest but not the actual sum lent. Thus was created the National Debt Fund of England in 1692.

The National
Debt Fund
1692

Meanwhile the Parliament passed a series of acts and measures for the good government of the country. In 1689, the Toleration Act was passed to grant religious liberty to the Protestant Dissenters.

The Toleration
Act and
The Mutiny Bill,
1689

The same year witnessed the passing of the Mutiny

Bill in order to maintain a severe discipline in the army. In 1692, the Law of Treason was passed to secure a fair trial for the accused person. The Triennial Act of 1694 provided that no Parliament should last more than three years. In the same year Queen Mary died of small-pox at the age of thirty-two, and her loss filled the whole nation with grief.

The Law of Treason, 1692, and The Triennial Act, 1694

After her death William ruled alone. As Queen Mary died without children, the English people became anxious about William's successor, and so, in the year 1701, a very important Act, called the Act of Settlement, was passed, which directed that after William's death the crown should go to Anne, sister of Queen Mary, and that if Anne died without children, it should pass over to Sophia, Electress of Hanover, grand-daughter of James I, and her Protestant descendants.

The Act of Settlement, 1701

Spanish Succession and the Formation of the Grand Alliance—Shortly after the Treaty of Ryswick, the great European powers settled that after the death of Charles II of Spain, who had no children, his vast dominions would be divided between Archduke Charles of Austria and Philip, Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV., who had claims to the throne of Spain. But when Charles II. of Spain died in 1700, Louis XIV. ignored the settlement and acquired the whole inheritance for his own grand-son. Moreover, he broke through the

Treaty of Ryswick by recognizing James Francis Edward, the son of James II., as the rightful king of England in 1701. The whole English nation at once clamoured for war. But before the war was declared, William III died by an accident in 1702. Before his death, however, he succeeded in forming the Grand Alliance with most of the European powers against France.

Death of
William III, 1701.

4 **Queen Anne (1702-1714).**—Anne, the youngest daughter of James II., succeeded her brother-in-law in accordance with the terms of the Act of Settlement. She was married to George, Prince of Denmark. She was a kind-hearted and well-meaning woman, but allowed herself to be guided by those whom she liked. At first she was much under the influence of Sarah Jennings, wife of John Churchill (afterwards Duke of Marlborough). As a favourite of the Queen, her husband soon became the foremost man in the kingdom. In course of time the Queen's love for Sarah waned, and a bed-chamber woman of the Queen, Mrs Masham, cousin of Lord Harley, the great Tory leader, became the favourite of the Queen.

Character of
Queen Anne

The part played by England in the War of the Spanish Succession.—The war which the death of William prevented him from undertaking, was commenced by Queen Anne just after her accession. The Duke of Marlborough was made Captain-General of the English forces. The chief scenes of this

of Dr Johnson, the author of the well-known Dictionary Sir Isaac Newton, a great Mathematician, who flourished in this reign, was
 Science regarded as one of the founders of modern English science for his famous mathematical and physical inventions

Queen Anne, the last of the Stuart sovereigns, died in 1714, and was succeeded by George I., son of Electress Sophia

Contemporaneous Indian Events—Aurangzeb ascended the throne of Delhi in 1658, and ruled till 1707, the year of the Legislative Union of England and Scotland He was thus a contemporary of the last four Stuart Sovereigns of England—Charles II, James II., William III. and Mary, and Queen Anne Soon after his accession to the throne, Aurangzeb involved himself in a war with the Mahrattas Sivaji, the founder of the Mahratta power, was born in 1627 He first of all quarrelled with the king of Bijapur, and succeeded in conquering a large number of forts and provinces belonging to the latter. Finding himself strong enough to break with the Moguls, Sivaji began to ravage their territories Aurangzeb made six successive attempts to crush the Mahratta leader, but in vain After the death of Sivaji, his son, Sambhuji, and his
 Sambhuji and Sahu (Sivaji II) grandson, Sivaji II, surnamed Sahu, were captured by the officers of Aurangzeb The former was killed, while the latter was kept

under guard in the imperial palace. Meanwhile Sivaji's half-brother, Rajaram, proclaimed himself king of the Mahrattas, and continued the struggle against the Moguls. But he was repeatedly defeated by the forces of Aurangzeb. Rajaram died in 1700, and was succeeded by his infant son Sivaji III. Tara Bai, the mother and regent of the boy king, carried on the war against the Moguls so successfully that Aurangzeb was compelled to retire from the Mahratta country. As Aurangzeb was a bigoted Mussalman, he treated his Hindu subjects very rudely. He destroyed many Hindu temples, notably the temple of Viswanath at Benares. The teachings of the Vedas were also prohibited. To crown all, he re-imposed the hateful poll-tax, called the *Jizya*, which offended the Rajputs so much that they revolted against the Emperor under a brave leader, named Rana Raj Sinha of Mewar. Aurangzeb was, however, obliged to make a favourable treaty with the Rajputs. He also succeeded in annexing the last two offshoots of the Bahmani kingdom, Bijapur and Golconda, in 1686 and 1688 respectively. Aurangzeb was succeeded by his son, Bahadur Shah. Although the Mogul Empire rose at the height of its power in the reign of Aurangzeb, yet it showed unmistakable signs of decay even in his own life-time, owing to his bigoted policy and cruel

Rajaram

Sivaji III
and Tara BaiAurangzeb's
treatment of
the HindusThe Rajput
RevoltAnnexation of
Bijapur and
Golconda

treatment towards the Hindus Bahadur Shah
 Bahadur Shah, ruled for five years. He released
 1707 1712 Sahu from imprisonment, and after his
 release the Mahrattas were divided into two sections,
 the one calling Sahu as their king, while the other
 adhering to Sivaji III. After the death of Bahadur
 Shah, a dispute arose among his
 Jahandar Shah, successors for the throne, which
 1712 resulted in the accession of Jahandar
 Shah, a profligate and worthless ruler, in 1712. He
 was soon deposed by the Syad brothers, Syad Abdul-
 lah, Governor of Allahabad, and Syad
 Farrukh Syar, Husan Ali, Governor of Behar, to make
 1712 1718 room for Farrukh Syar, a great-grand-
 son of Aurangzeb

SOVEREIGNS OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER OR BRUNSWICK, 1714-1901.

George I., 1714-1727.

George II., 1727-1760.

Frederick, Prince of Wales, *d* 1751

George III., 1760-1820.

William IV,
1830-1837

George IV,
1820-1830

Charlotte, *d* 1817
m Leopold of Saxe-
Coburg, King of the
Belgians (after
1830)

Edward,
Duke of Kent, m
Victoria, sister of
Leopold of Saxe-
Coburg

Ernest, Duke
of Cumberland,
King of Hanover
(after 1837)

Adolphus,
Duke of Cambridge
m Mary Adelaide,
m Francis, Duke
of Teck

Queen Victoria,
1837-1901

Victoria Mary of
Teck, m George V.

Edward VII,
the first king of
the House of
Windsor

Victoria, m Em-
peror Frederick III
of Germany

William II.,
the Kaiser or the
German Emperor,
deposed on Nov 9,
1918.

Alice, m Grand
Duke of Hesse

Alix, m Nicholas
II, Tsar of
Russia, deposed
on May 13, 1917,
and murdered on
July 16, 1918

Arthur,
Duke of
Connaught

Beatrice, m Henry
of Battenburg.

Victoria Eugenia,
m Alfonso XIII
of Spain

CHAPTER XII.

England under the House of Hanover.

1. **George I. (1714-1727)**—Just after the death of Queen Anne, the Whig leaders assembled in Parliament and proclaimed George I. King of England. He was the eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. He succeeded to the throne of England by virtue of the Act of Settlement of 1701. He was already king of Hanover, and therefore the dynasty of sovereigns that succeeded him in England, is known in history as the Hanoverian Dynasty. He was fifty-four years of age at the time of his accession to the throne of England. He was coarse

Character of
George I

and awkward in person and manner. He was very much liked by his people of Hanover, but he was never very popular with his English subjects. He could neither speak nor read English. He placed his confidence on the Whigs who had brought him into England. The Tory ministers of Queen Anne were impeached, as they had shown sympathies towards the Old Pretender, son of James II, and intended to proclaim him king after the death of Queen Anne.

The Jacobite Rebellion of 1715—The first event of importance in the reign of George I. was the great

“The Fifteen” Jacobite rising in England and Scotland in favour of the Old Pretender.

In Scotland, the great Jacobite leader, the Earl of Mar, proclaimed the Old Pretender King

James the Eighth of Scotland and Third of England
But he was defeated at Sheriffmuir,
in Perthshire, by the Royal forces Battle of
Sheriffmuir, 1715
under the command of the Duke of
Argyll in November, 1715 On the same day
on which the battle of Sheriffmuir was
fought, the Jacobites of Northumberland Battle of
Preston, 1715
and Cumberland were also forced
to surrender at Preston, in Lancashire For fear
of a Jacobite majority at the time
of a general election for Parliament, the The Septennial
Act, 1716
Septennial Act was passed in 1716, ex-
tending the duration of Parliament to seven years
instead of three years

The South-Sea Bubble —In 1720, there occurred a great commercial disaster, known as the South-Sea Bubble. The increase in trade and commerce gave birth to a number of trading companies A company, called the South-Sea Company, made an offer to the Government to repay part of the National Debt, if the Government would in return grant the company the exclusive privilege of trading with the Spanish coasts of South America. The Government accepted the offer of the Company, in spite of the strong protest of Sir Robert Walpole, an able financier and statesman. The prospect of profit held out by the Company was so fascinating that all England went mad to have South-Sea shares which soon ran up in value from £100 to £1000 Several families sold their property and bought shares of the Company expecting to get enormous

fortunes. But after a short time the bubble burst, the shares fell to an abnormally low price, and thousands of people were ruined. The directors of the Company were imprisoned, and their estates were seized and divided among the sufferers.

Sir Robert Walpole, the First Prime Minister of England—The failure of the South-Sea Company led to the formation of a new Whig ministry with Sir Robert Walpole at its head. Walpole now became the most popular man in England. He relieved the distress of the people, suffering from the failure of the South-Sea Company, by his wise and skilful management.

The predecessors of George I. used to preside over the Cabinet meetings, but, as the king could not speak English, he ceased from taking parts in those meetings. Now it became necessary to have one minister superior to the rest to preside over the Cabinet meetings, and to him the title of Prime Minister was given. Sir Robert Walpole accordingly became the first Prime Minister of England. He was a great practical statesman, and carried on the administration of the country with eminent success for more than twenty years. Walpole's chief object was to keep the country out of foreign wars, and thus the country prospered under his peaceful policy.

Death of George I.—Every year George used to visit Hanover. In 1727, while on a visit to that kingdom, he died of apoplexy.

Contemporaneous Indian Events.—Two years before the accession of George I. to the throne of England,

Farrukh Seyar was raised to the throne of Delhi by the Syad brothers. Farrukh soon tried to get rid of them, but failed. He was deposed and put to death by the Syad brothers in 1718. They then raised, in quick succession, three other princes to the throne of Delhi. The last of these three emperors was Muhammad Shah, a grandson of Bahadur Shah, who ruled from 1719 to 1748.

2 **George II (1727—1760)**—George II succeeded his father at the age of forty-four years.

He was, like his father, a German in ^{His Character} every way, but he could speak English. He was brave and honest, but selfish and obstinate. His reign lasted for thirty-three years, and covered a prosperous period of British history on account of the extension of the Empire in India and in North America. For the first fifteen years of his reign, Walpole held power as Prime Minister. In 1739, Walpole was forced by the English people to declare war against Spain on account of the ^{War with Spain, 1739} ill-treatment of the Spaniards towards

English seamen on the coast of Spanish America. Among other things, they had cut off the ear of an English sea-captain, named Jenkins, who produced this amputated ear out of a box before the House of Commons. The people became highly delighted when the war was declared. The war, however, proved unsuccessful. In 1742, Sir Robert resigned his office, and was succeeded by Lord Carteret, a Whig statesman.

England and the war of the Austrian Succession — Hardly the war with Spain was brought to a close, when England involved herself in another great Continental war, known as the War of the Austrian Succession. The Emperor of Austria, Charles VI, died in 1740, leaving no son but a daughter, named Maria Theresa. Before his death Charles persuaded the kings of Europe to promise and acknowledge Maria Theresa as his successor by the Treaty of Pragmatic Sanction. But after his death the European kings were base enough to disregard the treaty, and to take portions of Maria's dominions for themselves. But England took the side of Austria against Prussia, Bavaria,

Battle of
Dettingen, 1743

France and Spain. George II. himself went with an army and defeated the French at Dettingen, in Bavaria, in 1743, but, two years later, the French defeated the British troops under the Duke of Cumberland (second son of George II) at Fontenoy, in Belgium. Owing to the Jacobite rebellion of 1745, the British forces were withdrawn from the Continent. The war was, however, terminated by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

The Jacobite rebellion of 1745 — The rebellion lasted for about nine months. In 1745, Charles Edward, son of the Old Pretender, usually known as "The Forty Five," as the Young Pretender, landed in Scotland, and he was joined by many Highland Chiefs. He marched upon Perth and Edinburgh, and defeated the Royal forces at Prestonpans, a village near Edinburgh. Then he crossed the Border, and marched into

England as far as Derby. He thought that the English people would everywhere rise in his favour, but he was sadly disappointed in his hopes. Charles's advisers now suggested a retreat, and he sadly turned his steps northwards. The royal forces under the Duke of Cumberland pursued him, and at last completely defeated him at the battle of Culloden, near Inverness, in 1746. Charles then fled to France, and wandered about the Continent till he died in 1788. The rebellion of 1745 was the last Jacobite attempt to regain the throne of England for the exiled Stuarts.

Change of Ministry — The fall of the Carteret Ministry in 1744, was followed by a Coalition Ministry with Henry Pelham as the Prime Minister. With the death of Henry Pelham, the Coalition Ministry came to an end in 1754. Henry's brother, the Duke of Newcastle, then became the Prime Minister, but the chief power rested with William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, who had already become conspicuous as a brilliant orator and as a statesman of rare genius. He was so very popular with the mass of Englishmen that he soon came to be known as the Great Commoner.

The Seven Years' War — The Seven Years' War was a Continental war in the course of which the English and the French fought with each other for colonial and commercial supremacy. The war which lasted from 1756 to 1763, spread not only over the Continent, but also over America and India.

In Europe, the French, in the first year of the war, seized the island of Minorca, which had been in the possession of the English for the last fifty years. In 1759, the English gained a great victory over the French at the battle of Minden, in Germany

In North America, the English had, at this time, thirteen colonies, while the French held Canada on the St. Lawrence, and Louisiana on the Lower Mississippi. The French now resolved to join Canada and Louisiana together by seizing the Mississippi and the country east and west of it. In the war that followed, the English were at first unsuccessful. In 1759, William Pitt sent out a brave young general, named Wolfe, to conquer Canada. Wolfe had the instructions to capture Quebec,

the capital of Canada. The city stands on a high cliff facing the river St. Lawrence. It was also strongly fortified and defended by the French. Wolfe had to wait for three months on the opposite shore of the St. Lawrence. One dark night Wolfe took his forces across the river in boats and climbed the steep hill, called the Heights of Abraham, close under the walls of the city. Here a terrible battle was fought. The English gained the day, but Wolfe died in the lap of victory. Quebec fell into the hands of the English, and with it the whole of the French colony of Canada.

In India, the English had their three chief settlements at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta, while the French who had started an East India Company in 1604, had their chief settlement at Pondicherry, near Madras. At

first the English and the French traded peacefully under the rule of native princes, but, in course of time, both the nations resolved to make themselves masters of the greater part of India, under the pretence of helping the native princes in their quarrels. Since 1748, the English and the French had been fighting in the Carnatic as auxiliaries to the claimants for the throne of Hyderabad and of the Carnatic. During this Carnatic War, Clive, a writer to the English East India Company, 'exchanged the pen for the sword', and preserved the British fame and prestige by his timely capture of Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, in 1751. Six years after, Clive defeated Siraj-ud-daulah, the young Nawab of Bengal, at the battle of Plassey, and laid the foundation stone of the British Empire in India. At the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, the English and the French renewed their fighting in the Carnatic. The English Admiral, Sir Eyre Coote, won a great naval victory over the French at Wandiwash in 1760. The French were then closely besieged at Pondicherry, which, after a short-resistance, surrendered to the English in 1761.

The Seven Years' War was brought to a close by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, by which Great Britain obtained Minorca, Canada, Cape Breton, Florida and several other islands of the West Indies. The French possessions in India were restored by the English, but from this time the French power in India steadily declined.

Death of George II.—Before the Seven Years' War was terminated, George II suddenly died of heart-

failure in 1760. He was succeeded by his grandson, George III, son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had died during the life time of George II., in 1751.

Contemporaneous Indian Events.—George II. was a contemporary of four Emperors of Delhi, Muhammad Shah, Ahmad Shah, Alamgir II and Shah Alam II. It was in the reign of Muhammad Shah that Nizam-ul-Mulk, the governor of Hyderabad, Sadat Ali, the governor of Oudh and Ali Verdi Khan,

Muhammad Shah, 1719 1748 the governor of Bengal, proclaimed themselves independent. At the

instigation of the Emperor, the Syad brothers were, however, put to death. During his reign the Mahrattas under Sahu rapidly grew in strength and greatness. Sahu appointed Balaji Vishvanath, a

The rise of the Peshwas Mahattrah Brahman of high talents, as his Peshwa or Prime Minister. After Balaji's death in 1720, his son, Bajji Rao I, who

succeeded him to the Peshwaship, began to ravage the Mogul territories, and compelled the Emperor to cede some provinces to the Mahrattas. Bajji Rao had a mind to invade Delhi, but his ambition was checked by the sudden invasion of Nadir Shah, ruler of Persia and

Afghanistan. Nadir plundered Delhi, massacred its inhabitants without paying any regard to age and sex, and left

India after taking away the Peacock Throne and the precious diamond, Kohinur. Bajji Rao died in 1740, but before his death, he created the Maharatta Confederacy in order to carry out his plan of establishing

Nadir Shah's
Invasion, 1739

a powerful Mahratta empire on the ruins of the Mogul Empire. The principal members of this Confederacy were Rājā Sindhia (founder of the House of Sindhia), Malhar Rao Holkar (founder of the House of Holkar), Raghuji Bhonsla (founder of the Mahratta House of Berar) and Damaji Gaekwar (founder of the House of Baroda). Bajī Rao I was succeeded by his son, Balaji Bajī Rao, a man as ambitious as his father.

In 1748, Ahmad Shah Abdali, originally an officer of Nadir Shah, but afterwards ruler of Kandahar, invaded the Mogul territory. The Emperor's son Ahmad Shah, however, succeeded in <sup>Ahmad Shah's
Invasions</sup> defeating and expelling him. But he did not stop here. He again invaded India in 1751, and wrested the Punjab from Emperor Ahmed Shah who succeeded his father Muhammad Shah in 1748. In 1754, Emperor Ahmad Shah was deposed by his Prime Minister, Ghaziuddin, who raised Alamgir II, a grandson of Bahadur Shah, to the throne.

We have seen that when the Seven Years' War broke out in Europe, the English and the French in India had also engaged themselves in fighting with each other, which resulted in the downfall of the French power in India. Meanwhile, Alī Verdh Khan, Nawab of Bengal, died, and was succeeded by his grandson, Siraj-ud-daula, a head-strong young man, who at once quarrelled with the English. He was, however, defeated by Clive, at the battle of Plassey in 1757. Siraj-ud-daula was then deposed, and Mirjaffar, the Paymaster of the Nawab's forces, was raised to the throne of Bengal by the

English. The new Nawab granted to the English East India Company the district of Twenty-four Perganas as the price of his elevation. After the battle of Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of all the Company's settlements in Bengal, but he returned to England in 1760. Meanwhile Emperor Alamgir was murdered in 1759, when his son, Shah Alam II, ascended the throne.

3 George III. (1760—1820) — George III., a youth of twenty-two, succeeded his grandfather in 1760. Unlike

His Character the first two Georges, he was a born Englishman. He was a tender husband

and an affectionate father, but was ignorant, capricious and narrow-minded. At the commencement of his reign, he was much under the influence of his tutor, Lord Bute, who soon became one of his chief advisers. The first important act in the reign of George III. was the conclusion of the Peace of Paris between England and France in 1763. Several eminent

His Ministers ministers adorned the Court of George III, the most famous of them being George Grenville, Lord North, Earl of Chatham, Pitt the Younger and Lord Liverpool.

The American War of Independence, 1775—1783 — It has been said before that the colonies established by the British in North America were thirteen in number. All these colonies had recently grown in wealth, power, and population. Each of the thirteen colonies had a governor appointed by the Crown. The Seven Years' War had cost Britain an enormous sum, and as a large part of it had been spent to protect these colonies

against the French, the king's minister, Lord Grenville, thought it just that the colonists should pay something towards the expenses of the late war. Accordingly, in 1765, Lord Grenville passed the Stamp Act which required the American colonies to pay for stamp on legal documents. The Americans protested against this. They said that as they were not allowed to send representatives to the British Parliament, they should not be taxed to meet England's war expenses. The Stamp Act was, therefore, repealed in 1766, but, in the following year, new duties were imposed on tea and certain other articles which the colonies were in the habit of getting from Britain. Several eminent statesmen like William Pitt (now Earl of Chatham), Charles James Fox and Edmund Burke were against the imposition of these duties which meant nothing but taxation in another form. The Americans refused to pay the duties, and in 1773, during the administration of Lord North, they threw overboard some chests of tea lying at the Boston Harbour. War was accordingly declared against the rebellious colonies in 1775. The thirteen colonies now made a common cause, raised an army and placed it under a good and brave general, named George Washington, who afterwards became the first American President. On the fourth of July, 1776, the Americans publicly declared themselves independent of Great Britain, and formed themselves into a Republic under the title of the United States of America.

United States of
America

At the commencement of the war, the English won the battle of Bunker's Hill, but with great loss of life. In 1777, the English general, Burgoyne, was, however, obliged to surrender to the Americans at Saratoga

After this the French and the Spaniards came forward to help the Americans. In 1781, another English general, named Lord Cornwallis, was obliged to surrender to the

Americans at Yorktown. Finding it

The Treaty of
Versailles, 1783

useless to carry on the war, the Parliament concluded the Treaty of Versailles

in 1783, which acknowledged the independence of the United States of America, and restored Minorca and Florida to Spain.

Pitt the Younger — Before the American War of Independence was over, Lord North resigned office in 1782. In twenty months he was succeeded by four ministers, the last of whom was Pitt the Younger. Pitt was the second son of William Pitt, the Great Commoner, who was afterwards created Earl of Chatham. Pitt the Younger entered Parliament at the age of twenty-one. George III. made him Prime Minister when he was only four and twenty years old. He remained in office for twenty years, from 1783 to 1801, and again from 1804 to 1806. He governed the country with eminent success during the trying period of the French Revolution. He was undoubtedly one of the most brilliant statesmen that England has ever produced. Pitt was the leader of the Tories, but his views were more broad

and liberal than an ordinary Tory. His great rival was Charles James Fox, the leader of the Whigs. Pitt died in 1806, at the early age of forty-six. As he was dying, he cried out, "Oh, my country! How I leave my country!"

The French Revolution—During the administration of Pitt the Younger, a great revolution broke out in France, which, in a few years, swept away king, clergy and nobles. For a long time France had been governed by despotic kings. The material condition of France at the time was miserably bad. The lower classes were burdened with heavy taxes, and severely oppressed by the nobles who

Causes

had not to pay any taxes. The National Debt rose to an enormous amount in consequence of the extravagant expenses of the King and his Court. Even religion lost its hold on the popular mind as a result of the infidel writings of philosophers like Voltaire and Rousseau. Moreover, a great many Frenchmen had been in America during the American War of Independence, and when they came back to France, they brought with them the new republican ideas, and began to spread them in the midst of the French people. To satisfy the people, Louis XVI, the well-meaning king of France, summoned his parliament called the States-General, consisting of nobles, clergy and representatives of the people. But this only brought the discontent to a head. The representatives of the people, who predominated in the parliament, formed a National

The meeting of
the States
General, 1789

Assembly of their own, broke open the great state-prison called the Bastille, and began to overthrow law and order everywhere. They then imprisoned their king, Louis XVI, and his unhappy queen, Marie Antoinette, and afterwards beheaded them. After this they abolished the monarchical form of government, and proclaimed France a Republic. Then The French Republic and the Reign of Terror began what was called the Reign of Terror. Thousands of nobles and the Royalists were hunted down like wild beasts and cut to pieces or burnt alive, the Christian religion was abolished, and the clergy who did not escape were put to death.

War with France—Not satisfied with the change of government in their own country, they now declared their intention of helping nations everywhere, that would rise against their monarchs. All Europe stood aghast at the cruel, bloody and atrocious deeds perpetrated by the Revolutionists. England, Spain, Holland, Austria and Prussia at once united in one coalition against France to put down the lawlessness and tyranny raging there, and to restore the old form of government. Anticipating this coalition, the French Republic declared war against England, Spain, Holland, Austria and Prussia in 1793. In course of the war, however, Holland, Prussia and Spain deserted England and took the side of France. The French Republic now determined to strike a blow against Austria, and entrusted Napoleon Bonaparte with the task of reducing Italy and Austria.

THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



Napoleon Bonaparte

This Napoleon Bonaparte was the most remarkable man in the history of Europe. He was born in the island of Corsica in 1769. At the age of ten years, Napoleon was sent to France to receive a military education. When the Revolution first broke out in France, he distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon, a royalist city, by driving the British who came to help the citizens against the Republic. In 1796, he marched to Italy, defeated the Austrians in several engagements and conquered the whole of Northern Italy. He then directed his march towards Vienna, the capital of Austria. Austria was thus forced to sue for peace. England was now left alone to carry on the war. She defeated the French Republic and her allies in a series of naval engagements. In 1794, Lord Howe won a great victory over the French fleet off Brest. In 1795, Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope were captured from the Dutch. In 1797, Sir John Jervis and Captain Nelson defeated the Franco-Spanish fleet off Cape St Vincent on the Spanish coast, and in the same year Admiral Duncan beat the Dutch off Camperdown, in Holland.

Napoleon
Bonaparte

The French now resolved to strike England through her possessions in India, and sent out Napoleon Bonaparte with an army to conquer Egypt, so that they could make it useful in fighting against the English in India. Napoleon safely landed in Egypt, and soon succeeded in reducing that country, but the French fleet that took out his army, was almost entirely destroyed.

by the English Admiral, Horatio Nelson, who had already distinguished himself as a great sea-captain by his uncommon bravery and strong devotion to duty, at the battle of the Nile, in 1798. During this battle of the Nile, Casabianca, the 'young faithful' son of the captain of the French ship *L' Orient* which caught fire, refused to leave his post without the permission of his father and perished. When the flames began to spread round him,

The battle of
the Nile
1798

'He called aloud — "Say, father, say
If yet my task is done !"
He knew not that the chieftain lay
Unconscious of his son'

Finding it hopeless to maintain his position in Egypt, Napoleon returned to France in 1799, and was made First Consul or President of the French Republic. In 1802, a temporary peace was arranged between England and France, known in history as the Peace of Amiens.

The
Peace of Amiens,
1802

The Napoleonic War — The peace of Amiens was very short-lived. As early as 1803, war was renewed between England and France. In 1804, Napoleon overthrew the French Republic, and assumed the title of Emperor of the French. He then resolved to conquer England and the rest of Europe, and accordingly made preparations for an invasion of England. But the combined French and Spanish fleets upon which he

relied to obtain the command of the English Channel, were completely destroyed at Trafalgar by Admiral Nelson in 1805. The flags of Nelson's ship, the *Victory*, bore the memorable motto, '*England expects every man to do his duty*'. In the course of the fight, Nelson was struck by a bullet in the left shoulder. He lingered for three hours and died after saying, "Thank God ! I have done my duty !"

The battle of
Trafalgar,
1805

Thus baffled in his plans of conquering England, Napoleon issued the famous Berlin Decree in 1806, which declared that he would go to war with any country that traded with Great Britain. He hoped by this means to destroy British commerce.

Portugal, an ally of England, refused to accept the Decree. Napoleon at once turned his arms against Portugal and occupied Lisbon, its capital. After the occupation of Lisbon, Napoleon turned his attention to Spain, and put his own brother, Joseph, on the throne of that country. The Spaniards at once rose against Napoleon and his brother, and appealed to England for help. Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards created Duke of Wellington) who had already distinguished himself by his great victory over the Mahrattas at Assaye, in India, was sent out with a splendid British army into the Peninsula (Spain and Portugal). Wellesley landed in Portugal and defeated the French at Vimiero in 1808. This defeat compelled the French to leave Portugal. The war was then carried on in Spain. After the battle of Vimiero,

The Peninsular
War

Wellesley was recalled, and Sir John Moore was sent out in his place. Moore advanced far into Spain, but finding that Napoleon was then at Madrid, he retreated towards Corunna, a seaport on the north-west coast of Spain, where a terrible battle was fought in January, 1809. The French were defeated, but Moore was killed in the moment of victory. Sir Arthur Wellesley was again sent out to command the army in the Peninsula. Wellesley won the great battles of Talavera (1809), Salamanca (1812), and Vittoria (1813), and finally drove back the French across the Pyrenees. For his splendid services in the Peninsular war, Sir Arthur was created Duke of Wellington.

These great victories of the British arms roused all Europe against Napoleon. In 1812, Russia not only refused to submit to the Berlin Decree, but also placed a duty on all imported French products. Highly incensed at this behaviour of Russia, Napoleon's Russian Campaign Napoleon invaded that country with 450,000 men and entered Moscow, the ancient capital of Russia, but, to his great disappointment, found the city deserted by the Russians. Want of provision and severe winter compelled Napoleon to retreat from Russia with the loss of nearly the whole of his army.

Russia, Prussia and Austria now united with England against Napoleon, whose cruelty and ambition had exasperated every nation of Europe. The allies now entered Paris, and compelled Napoleon to abdicate the throne of France in favour of Louis XVIII., a brother of Louis XVI.,

THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



The Duke of Wellington

The famous warrior who delivered
Europe from the horrors of a despot

and to retire to the island of Elba, on the coast of Italy. But about eleven months after the restoration of Louis XVIII, Napoleon left Elba, landed in the south of France, and was welcomed by his old troops. The French king then fled to England for his life, and Napoleon once more became Emperor of France. All Europe at once determined to punish the usurper. The Duke of Wellington was again sent out with an army to Belgium and he, with the help of the Prussian general, Blücher, succeeded in defeating Napoleon at the famous battle of Waterloo on June 18, 1815, and thus delivered Europe from the horrors of a despot. Soon after the battle, Napoleon surrendered to the English, and was sent as a state-prisoner to the island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic, where he died in 1821. The French king, Louis XVIII, once more returned to his kingdom.

Battle of
Waterloo
1815

Home Government of George III—Although Ireland had been subjugated by William III, its internal affairs remained unchanged. In 1798, the Irish, aided by France, rose in rebellion against the English Government. This rebellion was, of course, put down by the English, but it led to the Union of the two Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland, in 1800. In future, Ireland was to send thirty-two peers to the British House of Lords, and one hundred members to the House of Commons. This arrangement was brought about by Pitt the Younger.

The Irish
Rebellion,
1798

The Act of
Union 1800

After the death of Pitt, Lord Grenville formed a Ministry, known as the *Ministry of all*
Abolition of
the Slave Trade,
1807
the Talents, because it was made up of men of all parties. The administration of the Talents was memorable chiefly for the Abolition of the Slave Trade in 1807.

Lord Liverpool was the last Prime Minister of George III. It was he who brought the French Revolutionary War to a successful end.

The reign of George III, the second longest in English history, lasted for sixty years. During the last ten years of his reign, George III, however, became insane, and the Government of the country was carried on by the Prince of Wales who was appointed Regent.

Material Progress during the reign of George III —

In this reign great industries sprang up in
The Industrial
Revolution
South Wales and in the North of England. The invention of Spinning-Jenny by Hargreaves, of Power-Loom by Dr Cartwright, of Spinning-Frame by Richard Arkwright and of Mule-Jenny by Crompton, laid the firm foundation of English Cotton industry in Manchester and Lancashire. The iron industry was also immensely developed by the discovery of pit-coal for smelting iron-ore. The most important of all the inventions was the invention of Steam-engine by James Watt, for, by the force of steam all machines could be worked for all manufactures much more cheaply, easily and quickly than by hand-labour. These several inventions and discoveries which brought a change in the methods of production, and which

turned Britain into the workshop of the world, are sometimes spoken of as the Industrial Revolution. Several new and beautiful canals were dug under the supervision of James Brindley to carry the manufactured goods quickly to the ports. Several new roads were also constructed to connect the important places of the kingdom. The streets of London were illuminated with beautiful gas-lights, first invented in this reign.

Art, Literature and Science, too, made rapid progress in this reign. Poets like Oliver Goldsmith, William Cowper, George Campbell, John Keats, Percy Shelley and Robert

Art, Literature
and Science

Burns did much to develop the English poetical literature, while the improvement of prose literature was due to the writings of Charles Lamb and Sir Walter Scott. The philosophical literature was enriched by the writings of Adam Smith and Edmund Burke, while the historical literature was specially improved by the famous works of David Hume and Edward Gibbon. Sir Joshua Reynolds, the first President of the Royal Academy, devoted the greater part of his talent to improve the art of painting. Dr. Edward Jenner invented the method of vaccination as preventive of small-pox.

A good many colonies of England also sprang up in this reign in New Zealand, in the eastern coast of Australia and in South Africa.

Death of George III, 1820—George III died in 1820 at the good old age of eighty-two. He left six sons and five daughters. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Prince George.

Contemporaneous Indian Events —During the long reign of George III, the British Empire was not only firmly established in India, but also greatly enlarged in its extent. The French who attempted to establish an empire in India, were utterly humbled by the capture of Pondicherry in 1761. In the same year, the Mahattas who also cherished the idea of founding a Hindu empire on the ruins of the Mogul Empire, were totally defeated, with great slaughter, at the Third Battle of Panipat by Ahmad Shah Abadali who had been provoked by the conquest of the Punjab and the expulsion of the Afghans from that province by the Mahattas. In 1765, Lord Clive once more returned to India, and managed to obtain from Shah Alam II, the titular Emperor of Delhi, the Dewani or the collection of revenue of Bengal, Behar and Orissa. This Emperor Shah Alam was a contemporary of George III. The English, however, left the collection of the revenue in the hands of the ill-paid native officers who began to rob and oppress the people very much.

This mistake was, however, remedied by an able officer of the East India Company, who transferred the collection of the revenue from the hands of native officers to those of European Collectors.

Warren
Hastings
1774-1785

This able officer was Warren Hastings who became the first Governor-General of India under the Regulating Act, passed at the instance of Lord North in the British Parliament in 1773. Hastings waged war, with

admirable success, against the Maharattas and Hyder Ali and his son, Tipu Sultan of Mysore

The successor of Warren Hastings was Lord Cornwallis who had fought in the American War of Independence. His name will ever be remembered for his several administrative reforms, the most important of which was the Permanent Settlement of the land revenue of Bengal. Cornwallis also fought with Tipu Sultan of Mysore, and compelled him to cede one half of his dominions to the English.

Lord
Cornwallis
1785 1793

The next Governor-General of importance was Lord Wellesley who resolved to make the British power paramount in India, and to bring the various native states under the protection of the British Government. His policy was, therefore, a policy of British supremacy with Subsidiary Alliance. As a result of this policy, the Nizam of Hyderabad, the Peshwa, Bajirao II, and the Gaekwar of Baroda acknowledged the British overlordship. The other three Maharatta chiefs, the Bhonslas, Sindhia and Holker, who refused to enter into the Subsidiary Alliance, were defeated and humbled by the Governor-General with the help of his brother, Sir Arthur Wellesley, who was afterwards created Duke of Wellington. Lord Wellesley also fought with and overthrew Tipu Sultan of Mysore who was intriguing with the French against the English. Wellesley annexed Allahabad, Agra, Delhi, Rohilkhand, Orissa,

Lord
Wellesley
1798 1805

the Carnatic and a few other places to the British Indian dominion.

The policy of Lord Wellesley was, however, not approved by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, and so he was recalled in 1805. But the work which was left unfinished by Lord Wellesley was completed by Lord Hastings who became Governor-General in 1813. He not only crushed the Pindaris and the Maharattas, but also annexed Simla, Naini Tal, Mussooree, Poona and several other places to the British Indian Empire.

4 George IV (1820-1830) — George IV. who had acted as Regent for ten years in the last reign, ascended the throne in 1820 at the age of fifty-seven years. He was a vain and worthless king. Unlike his father he was very unpopular, specially for the cruel treatment towards his wife, Queen Caroline. He married Caroline of Brunswick in 1795. The marriage proved a very unhappy one. Their only daughter, Princess Charlotte, died in 1817, and the king who wished to marry again for an heir, resolved to divorce her, but failed. The Queen, however, died of broken heart in 1821.

Cato Street Conspiracy, 1820 — The first important event in his reign was the Cato Street Conspiracy, formed by one Thistlewood to assassinate the king's ministers at a cabinet dinner given by Lord Harrowby. The plot was, however, detected in time, and Thistlewood and others were captured and executed.

The Liverpool Ministry—Lord Liverpool who had been the Prime Minister in the last reign continued to be so till his illness in 1827. In 1822, he strengthened his ministry by appointing Sir Robert Peel as Home Secretary and Huskisson as President of the Board of Trade. In 1824, Peel reformed the Criminal Laws of England, and thereby did away with capital punishment for several trifling and petty offences. Huskisson, an advocate of Free Trade, reduced a considerable portion of the duties on imported goods.

The Ministry of Lord Canning and of Lord Goderich—Lord Liverpool was succeeded by George Canning as Prime Minister, but he died within three months. In his administration England helped the Greeks who had been fighting against the Turks to gain their independence. Many prominent Englishmen including the great poet Lord Byron went out to fight for the cause of Greek freedom. France and Russia also sent assistance to the Greeks. The allied forces destroyed the Turkish fleet off Navarino, in 1827, and thus paved the way for the recognition of the independence of Greece by Turkey in 1829.

The Wellington Ministry.—The next Prime Minister of George IV was the famous Duke of Wellington, the Victor of Waterloo. During his administration, the Test Act and the Corporation Act, which had been passed in the reign of Charles II, were repealed. The

Catholics were consequently allowed to enter the army and the navy. They now aspired to sit in Parliament. But the King and the Prime Minister would not grant them this privilege. The Catholics,

The Catholic
Emancipation
Bill, 1829

however, went on agitating under a brave and able Irishman, named Daniel O'Connell, whose eloquence and exertion at last brought about the desired privilege. In 1829, the Parliament passed the Catholic Emancipation Bill which not only allowed them to sit in the Parliament, but also removed several other disabilities from which they had been suffering so long.

Death of George IV, 1830 — George IV died in 1830. As he died childless, he was succeeded by his third brother William, his second brother Frederick having died in 1827.

Contemporaneous Indian Events — During the short rule of George IV, the British Empire in India was further extended by the annexation of Assam, Arrakan, and Fennasserim in 1826, as the result of

Lord Amherst,
1823 1828

the First Burmese War. These annexations were made by Lord Amherst who succeeded Lord Hastings in 1823. The successor of Lord

Lord William
Bentinck,
1828 1835

Amherst was Lord William Bentinck. The administration of Bentinck marks an era of peaceful improvement and progress in India. The most memorable acts associated with the name of Bentinck, are the Abolition of the Sati rite and the Suppression of the Thugs. He also put a stop to the practice of offering human sacrifices to the

Goddess Earth by the Khonds of Madras. It was Lord Bentinck who gave the educated natives of India a wider scope for their employment into the higher ranks of Government service

5 **William IV** (1830-1837)—William, Duke of Clarence, third son of George III, ascended the throne after his brother's death in his sixty-fifth year. He was a kind and good-natured king. He had served in the navy in his earlier days, and so he was often called the Sailor King. The first important event in his reign was the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1825, constructed by George Stephenson, the inventor of the locomotive.

Revolution in France and Belgium—A few weeks after William's accession, a second Revolution was brought about in France, in July, 1830. Charles X, the successor of Louis XVIII, proved to be a tyrannical king. The people rose against him, and drove him out of France.

Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, who promised to rule according to the wishes of the people, was then raised to the throne of France. The people of Belgium also rose in rebellion against the Dutch. As a result of this revolt, Belgium was separated from Holland, and Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, the husband of Princess Charlotte, the only daughter of George IV, who died in 1817, became the first king of the Belgians.

The First Reform Bill, 1832.—The most notable event in the reign of William IV. was the passing of

the famous Reform Bill in 1832. For many years the English people felt the need of a Reform of the House of Commons. Though the English Parliament became supreme after the Revolution of 1688, it had ceased to represent the whole nation. Owing to the growth of trade and several new industries, a great many populous towns like Birmingham, Leeds and Manchester, sprang up in the north of England, but these towns were not allowed to send their representatives to the Parliament. The ancient rotten boroughs, or the old towns that had neither electors nor inhabitants, on the other hand, still had the privilege of returning members to Parliament. Moreover, bribery and corruption prevailed during the time of general election.

In 1816, William Cobbett, a violent political writer of the day, stirred the nation to cry for Parliamentary Reform. The Whigs took up the cause of Parliamentary Reform, and began to agitate violently. The agitation assumed a serious aspect after the accession of William IV. The king and his Tory minister, Wellington, were opposed to it. Wellington was, therefore, forced to resign, and Lord Grey, the leader of the Whigs, formed a new ministry. Lord John Russell, the Leader of the House of Commons, brought a Reform Bill into the Parliament of 1831. The Bill was passed by the House of Commons, but the Lords threw it out. Thereupon several riots broke out all over the country in which houses were burnt and men killed. The Bill was re-introduced in a somewhat altered form into the Parliament of 1832. The Bill was again passed by the House

of Commons, but the House of Lords again rejected it by a majority of forty-one votes. Lord Grey now asked the king to create fifty new peers so as to outvote the opposition, and as the king would not do this, Lord Grey resigned his office. The king then invited Wellington to form a ministry, but he failed. The people became very much indignant and refused to pay the taxes unless the Reform Bill was passed. Lord Grey was once more recalled. As it became known that the king was now willing to create a number of Whig peers, the Lords gave way, and the Great reform Bill was passed into law in 1832. The Reform Act took from the small boroughs or towns, with less than two thousand inhabitants, the right of sending members to Parliament, and gave it instead to the hitherto unrepresented but populous towns. The franchise or the right of voting in the election of members of Parliament was also considerably extended. It was during this controversy over the Reform Bill, that the Tories took the name of Conservatives, while the Whigs came to be known as Liberals.

The
Reform Act
1832

Measures of the Reformed Parliament.—The first Reformed Parliament met in January, 1833. The trade in slaves had been abolished in 1807, but the English planters in the West Indies kept a large number of Negroes under them as slaves. In 1833, the Parliament passed the Act for the Abolition of Slavery, chiefly through the exertions of William Wilberforce who devoted his whole life and

Abolition of
Slavery
1833

energy to the cause of the abolition of Slavery throughout the British Empire. The Act set free all the slaves in the West Indies and other British dominions. A sum of twenty millions of pounds was given to the planters as compensation.

The year, in which slavery was abolished from the British Dominions, also witnessed the passing of the Factory Act, by which children, working in the factories were protected from over-work and ill-treatment. In the following year, a new Poor Law was passed, which directed that no aid should be given to able-bodied men unless they went into the poor houses, and worked for their own living.

Death of William IV, 1837 — William IV died childless in 1837. He was succeeded by his niece, Princess Victoria of Kent.

Contemporaneous Indian Events — During the short rule of William IV, the British rule in India was extended to Cachar and Coorg by Lord William Bentinck, the Governor-General of India, who remained in office till 1835. In 1835, the Government of Lord Bentinck decided to impart Western education to the Indian boys through the medium of the English language. This is one of England's precious gifts to India. Sir Charles Metcalfe who succeeded Lord Bentinck, granted complete freedom to the press in India.

THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



Queen Victoria

6. Queen Victoria (1837-1901)—Queen Victoria, the only daughter of the Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III, ascended the throne of England after the death of her uncle in 1837. At the time of her accession, she was only eighteen years old. She was not only an accomplished woman, but a ^{Her} ^{character} prudent, sensible and just ruler too. Queen Victoria soon became very popular, as she tried to do as much good to her people as she could. In 1840, the Queen married her cousin, Prince ^{Prince Albert,} ^{the Prince} ^{Consort} Albert of Saxe-Coburg, a German Prince, who devoted his life to secure the welfare of the English people. The Prince, however, died in 1861, and was greatly missed by the Queen and her subjects.

Separation of Hanover from England—In the beginning of this reign, Hanover which had come under English rule since 1714, passed into the hands of the Duke of Cumberland, fifth son of George III, as the laws of Hanover prevented a female from succeeding to the throne of that country.

Ministers of Queen Victoria—More than eight eminent statesmen became Prime Ministers in the reign of Queen Victoria, the most famous of them being Sir Robert Peel, Mr Disraeli and Mr Gladstone.

The Chartist Agitation—When Queen Victoria came to the throne, there was universal misery among the working classes. The failure of harvest for the two successive seasons and the consequent misery

of the poor people, led to the framing of the People's Charter in 1838. Those who were in favour of the Charter, were known as the Chartists. They demanded from the Government six popular reforms, namely, (1) Universal Suffrage, that is, every man of the age of twenty-one and upwards should have a vote; (2) Annual Parliaments, that is, a Parliament should last only one year, instead of seven, as they do now; (3) Vote by Ballot, that is, all voting should be known to the voter himself and to no others; (4) Abolition of the Property Qualification, that is, every man, whether he owned property or not, should be chosen a Member of Parliament; (5) Payment of Members, that is, a Member of Parliament should be paid for his services; and (6) Equal Electoral Districts, that is, the number of Members of Parliament in a district should depend on the numbers of its population. The Chartists went on agitating till 1848, when the movement almost verged on revolution. Riots and disturbances broke out throughout the kingdom. The Chartists then began to march towards London in procession in order to present a petition, embodying the demands, to the House of Commons. They were, however, prevented from going beyond the Westminster Bridge in procession. Although the movement proved a failure, two of its demands, namely, vote by ballot and abolition of the property qualifications ultimately became law.

Repeal of the Corn Laws.—The chief political event in the earlier years of her reign, was the Repeal of the

Corn Laws in 1846 To protect British agriculture against the competition of imported corn, the Parliament had passed a series of laws, called Corn Laws, prohibiting the exportation of British corn and imposing a duty on all imported corn. In course of time, the Corn Laws became very oppressive, for they caused corn to reach a very high price.

The poorer classes suffered grievously from these laws. In 1838, the Anti-Corn Law League The Anti Corn Law League was established to spread the principles of Free Trade and to secure the repeal of the Corn Laws. The most prominent members of the League were two Manchester men, John Bright and Richard Cobden. These two gentlemen maintained that if the products of other nations were allowed to come into the country free of duty, it would certainly conduce to the prosperity of Great Britain. The League soon succeeded in convincing the people of the several evil effects of the Corn Laws. In 1845, a famine broke out in Ireland, which afforded the League sufficient opportunity to agitate the matter violently. In 1846, Sir Robert Peel, the Prime Minister, who was at first in favour of high duties on foreign corn, but who recently changed his views, repealed the Corn Laws and thereby inaugurated the Era of Free Trade in England.

Parliamentary Reforms in the reign of Queen Victoria—In 1867, Mr. Disraeli, the Leader of the House of Commons, introduced a bill for further reforms in the Parliamentary The Second Reform Act, 1867 franchise. This bill was soon passed, and was known

as the Second Reform Act. It conferred the right of voting on all men who paid poor rates, on those lodgers in towns who paid a rent of not less than £10 a year, and on those tenants in counties who paid a rent of £12 a year.

In 1872, the Parliament passed the Ballot Act which enabled the voters to give their votes in secret.

The Third Reform Act was passed in 1885. By it the Borough and County occupiers were placed on the same footing with regard to franchise. The Act also took from boroughs with less than fifteen thousand inhabitants, the right of sending a member to Parliament. It cut up the whole country into electoral districts, each of which had the right of sending one member to Parliament.

The Irish Question — A party of Irishmen, known as the Fenians, attempted to establish a republic in Ireland. They manifested their revolutionary spirit in the several disturbances that broke out in England and Ireland in 1867. The Parliament wanted to put down their disturbances by harsh and coercive measures. But Mr Gladstone, the far-famed Prime Minister of the Queen, at once perceived that only coercive measures could not pacify the discontented Irish. So he came forward to remove some of the grievances of the Irish. In Ireland, the majority of the people were Catholics, but they had to pay taxes for the support of the Protestant clergy.

This was a matter of hardship to the Irish Catholics. To satisfy them Gladstone passed an ^{Disestablishment} Act in 1869, by which the Irish Catholics ^{of the Irish Church} were exempted from supporting the ¹⁸⁶⁹ Protestant Church in Ireland. In the following year, he passed an Irish Land Act ^{The Irish Land} which prohibited the unjust evictions ^{Act, 1870} of the tenants by the landlords and improved the condition of the Irish peasantry. But these measures could not bring full satisfaction to the Irish ^{The Home Rule} people. They now demanded Home ^{Movement} Rule for Ireland, that is to say, they wanted to establish a separate Parliament in Ireland and with it the right of managing their own affairs. To get rid of the troublesome Irish question, Gladstone introduced the Home Rule Bill into the British Parliament in 1886, in which he proposed a separate Parliament in Dublin for the Irish people. The British Parliament was, however, not in favour of granting Home Rule to the Irish people, and so the bill was rejected. The rejection of the Bill led to the resignation of Gladstone. In 1892, Gladstone again became Prime Minister, and in the following year, he re-introduced the Home Rule Bill. The Bill was passed by the House of Commons, but it was thrown out by the House of Lords. Gladstone then retired into private life and died in 1898.

European Affairs — In 1848, a Revolution broke out in Paris, which drove the French king, ^{France} Louis Philippe, from the kingdom, and a Republic was then set up in France with Louis

Napoleon as its President. In 1852, he overthrew the Republic, restored the Empire and assumed the title of Napoleon III. In 1870, Emperor Napoleon 'quarrelled with William I., King of Prussia. In the war that followed all the German States sided with Prussia. The Franco-Prussian War of 1870, however, put an end to the reign of Napoleon III, and a Republic was once more set up in France. The Republic sought peace by ceding the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany.

In Germany, the immediate result of the Franco-Prussian War was the union of several German States under the headship of Prussia. In 1871, William I

The was formally proclaimed hereditary German Emperor at Versailles. The man who brought about this unity of Germany was Bismark, the greatest of the German Statesmen. For his splendid services Bismark was appointed the first Imperial Chancellor, and was raised to the rank of a prince.

In 1854, Great Britain and France joined Turkey in her war with Russia. Russia demanded the right of protecting the Christian subjects of the Sultan, which

Turkey indignantly refused. Russia accordingly declared war against Turkey in 1854. As the war was mainly con-

ducted in the Crimea, the southern portion of Russia, it is known as the Crimean War, 1854-1856. The chief incidents of the war were the victories of the Alma, of Balaclava, and

of Inkermann, gained by the allied forces, and the Siege of Sebastopol, one of the four capitals of Russia, in the course of which the British soldiers suffered terribly from want of food and shelter during winter. The siege lasted for nearly a year. A noted figure in this war was Miss Florence Nightingale who with a band of nurses went to the Crimea, and rendered great services by relieving the sufferings of the soldiers. In 1855, the allied forces succeeded in taking Sebastopol. In the following year, a peace was concluded between Russia and Turkey at Paris, by which Russia agreed not to keep any man-of-war in the Black Sea.

The several states of Italy had been subject to Austria from a very long time. A movement was, however, set on foot to liberate Italy from the hands of the Austrians, which resulted ^{Italy} in the unification of all the Italian states in 1870. Victor Emanuel was the first independent king of Italy with Rome as its capital.

In 1875, troubles broke out in the Balkan Peninsula, caused by the misgovernment of Turkey. The Balkan Peninsula comprises the provinces of ^{The Balkan Peninsula} Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria, Turkey, and Greece. The whole of the Peninsula formerly belonged to Turkey. But Greece threw off the yoke of Turkey in 1830.

In 1875, Bosnia and Herzegovina revolted against the authority of Turkey. Bulgaria now joined the insurrection, but the rising was suppressed by the Turks.

with great barbarity. In 1876, Servia, Montenegro and Roumania declared their independence. On behalf of these revolted Christians, Russia declared war against Turkey in 1877. The war was, however, concluded by the Treaty of San Stefano in 1878, but England demanded that the terms of the treaty should be submitted to a European Congress. Accordingly the Congress met at Berlin in June, 1878, under the presidency of Bismark. The Treaty of Berlin is the outcome of this Congress. By it—

(1) Montenegro, Servia and Roumania were declared independent.

(2) Bulgaria which is at present an independent State, was made a self-governing State, paying tribute to Turkey.

(3) Austria was allowed to occupy and administer Bosnia and Herzegovina.

(4) England gained Cyprus on condition of her protecting Asia Minor.

African Wars—In Northern Africa, Egypt formerly belonged to Turkey. In 1841, Egypt virtually became an independent state though its ruler, the Khedive, nominally acknowledged the suzerainty of Turkey.

In 1879, England and France succeeded in setting up a control in Egypt. In 1882, Arabi Pasha, an Egyptian officer, resented the European supremacy and raised the standard of revolt. France then abandoned her control, but England sent

an expedition to Egypt, which ultimately put down the revolt. Arabi Pasha was taken prisoner, and was afterwards exiled to Ceylon.

To the south of Egypt lay a province, called the Sudan, mostly inhabited by the Arab tribes. These Arab tribes revolted against Egypt in 1882 under a religious fanatic, called the Mahdi. They succeeded in destroying a large Egyptian army. General Gordon who was sent to withdraw the Egyptian garrisons from the Sudan, was brutally murdered by the Sudanese. For a few years the plan of reconquering Sudan had to be given up. In 1898, Sir Herbert Kitchener (afterwards Lord Kitchener) began his operations against the Khalifa, the successor of the Mahdi, and succeeded in reconquering the Sudan after totally destroying the Sudanese army at the battle of Omdurman.

In Southern Africa, Cape Colony which was formerly settled by the Dutch, came into the possession of Great Britain in 1806. A few years after, a large number of emigrants were sent there by the Home Government. In 1834, the Dutch Colonists, called the Boers, left Cape Colony and settled in Natal, the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal. In 1843, Britain took Natal from the Boers. Taking advantage of a quarrel between the Boers and the Zulus or the natives of the Transvaal in 1877, Britain annexed the Transvaal State. But in the war that followed, the Transvaal was restored to the Boers. The discovery of gold and diamond mines in Transvaal attracted a large number of British and other emigrants.

The Boer Wars

to settle there. These British and other foreign residents of the Transvaal, who were called the Uitlanders by the Boers, now claimed the rights of citizenship from the Transvaal Government. The British Government opened negotiations with that of the Transvaal to secure these rights for the Uitlanders. The Boers, however, refused to recognise the just demands of the Uitlanders, and declared war against England in 1899. The Boers then invaded Natal and part of Cape Colony. At the commencement of the war, the Boers succeeded in defeating the English in a series of operations. In 1900, Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener were sent out by the British Government with a large army. They compelled the Boer general, Cronje, to surrender, and relieved Lady-Smith, Kimberly and other places which had been besieged by the Boers. The war was terminated by the annexation of the Transvaal and the Orange River State to the British Empire.

Wars with China.—Three wars were fought with China, in consequence of disputes about the opium trade, and of cruel treatment of the Europeans by the Chinese Government. These wars resulted in the acquisition of the island of Hongkong, the opening of a number of Chinese ports to British vessels, and the grant of some special privileges to British subjects resident in China.

Canada and Australia.—In 1837, a revolt broke out in Canada, which was, however, soon suppressed. The loss of the American colonies in the reign of George III

has taught England a lesson. To prevent the existing British colonies in North America from severing their connection with the Mother Country, Canada and other British colonies in North America were united together under the name of the Dominion of Canada, and a large measure of independence was given to the Colonists in the management of their internal affairs. In 1901, all the British Colonies in Australia were likewise united under the title of the Commonwealth of Australia.

Material Progress in England during Queen Victoria's reign.—The Age of Victoria is noted for a great many scientific inventions and material improvements. The opening of the Thames Tunnel, the inauguration of electric and submarine telegraph, electric light and tramways, the extension of railroads and the introduction of the Penny Postage System, established easy means of communication and thereby facilitated trade and commerce. The passing of the Education Act of 1870 provided for the moral and intellectual advancement of the English people. Moreover, poets like William Wordsworth, Robert Brown-
ing, Alfred Tennyson and Matthew Celebrated Men
of Letters Arnold, novelists like George Eliot, Charles Dickens, Lord Lytton and William Thackeray, historians like George Grote, Henry Hallam, Lord Macaulay and Thomas Carlyle, and philosophers like John Stuart Mill, Henry Fawcett, John Ruskin and Sir John Strachey enriched and adorned the English literature in the reign of Queen Victoria.

Death of Queen Victoria, 1901 — Queen Victoria died at the good old age of eighty-two, after a glorious reign of sixty-four years. To commemorate the fiftieth year of her reign, the English people celebrated a Golden Jubilee in 1887. Ten years later a Diamond Jubilee was also celebrated on the completion of the sixtieth year of her reign. On her death she was succeeded by her eldest son, Prince Edward.

Contemporaneous Indian Events — The long reign of Queen Victoria saw the wide extension of the British Empire in India. When Queen Victoria ascended the throne of England, Lord Auckland was the Governor-General of India.

In 1838, Lord Auckland was compelled to declare war against the Afghans, as their ruler, Dost Muhammad, treated the English envoy who was sent to establish friendly relations between the British Government and the Afghans, with contempt. The English deposed Dost Muhammad, sent him as a state-prisoner to Calcutta and set up another man, named Shah Shuja, in his stead. But the Afghans did not like that the English would thrust a ruler on them, and so they rose under Akbar Khan, son of Dost Muhammad, into rebellion and murdered the whole British army on their march from Kabul to India. Only one survivor, named Dr. Brydon, came to inform the Governor-General of this disastrous event. Shah Shuja also was murdered by the rebels. Lord Ellenborough who succeeded Lord Auckland, sent a

First Afghan
War

fine army to retrieve British honour in Afghanistan, which succeeded in putting down the rebellion. Lord Ellenborough also annexed Sind to the Bombay Presidency.

The administration of Lord Hardinge I and Lord Dalhousie, who succeeded Lord Ellenborough one after the other, were mainly occupied with wars against the Sikhs. The Sikhs were ^{The Sikh Affairs} originally a religious sect founded by Nanak towards the close of the fifteenth century. They at first lived a peaceful life, but when the Muhammadans began to persecute them, they converted themselves into a military body to take revenge on their persecutors. They began to give trouble to the Moguls after Aurangzeb's death under their leader Banda who, however, was captured and executed with many of his followers in 1716. The Sikhs then divided themselves into different bands called *Misls*. Though they succeeded in resisting their persecutors, they soon became disunited and often carried on war with one another. The different Sikh bands or *Misls* afterwards came under the control of Ranjit Singh, "the Lion of the Punjab". During the administration of Lord Minto, a treaty was concluded between the English and Ranjit, by which the river Sutlej became the boundary between the English and the Sikh States. Ranjit remained true to the treaty till his death in 1839. After his death, the Sikhs grew too troublesome to be kept under control. To get rid of them, the Queen Mother, the regent of the infant son of Ranjit, ordered the Sikh

army to cross the Sutlej and attack the British territories. The first Sikh war accordingly broke out in 1845, which resulted in the annexation of the Jalandhar Doab by the English, in the recognition of Kashmir

The two Sikh
Wars

as an independent kingdom, and in placing the boy Maharaja, Dulip Singh, under the control of the English. In 1848, the Sikhs under Mulraj, governor of Multan, revolted against the English and the boy Maharaja. The Sikh general, Sher Singh, who had been sent to quell the disturbance, deserted with his army to the rebels. At the instigation of the Queen Mother, the whole Punjab rose against the English. The Sikhs were, however, completely defeated at the battle of Gujrat, and the Punjab was annexed to the British dominions in 1849.

Lord Dalhousie also annexed Pegu as the result of the Second Burmese War. To secure good rule to the

The "Doctrine
of Lapse

governed, Dalhousie adopted the policy of "Doctrine of Lapse," and annexed Satara, Jhansi and Nagpur, setting aside the claims of the adopted sons of the rulers of those States. He also rejected the claim of Nana Saheb to the pension of Bajirao II, his adoptive father. The administration of Dalhousie was also noted for the material and intellectual advancement of the country. Railways, Telegraph and the cheap Postage System were first introduced into this country in his time. In 1854, the Court of Directors sent the celebrated Despatch on Education, which afterwards led to the establishment of Universities in the three Presidency towns of

Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. Lord Dalhousie left India in 1856

The administration of Lord Canning, the successor of Lord Dalhousie, was memorable for the Sepoy Mutiny. Lord Dalhousie's policy of Doctrine of Lapse unsettled the minds of the Indian princes and the people alike. A rumour was now spread that the Company's rule would come to an end in 1857. Another rumour of a serious nature was also afloat that the cartridges of the new rifles which were being introduced among the native troops, were greased with the fats of pigs and cows in order

The Sepoy Mutiny
1857

to defile the religions of both the Hindus and the Mussalmans. The Bengal Sepoys first of all mutined against the authority of the British Raj. Then the Sepoys of Meerut rose in rebellion, massacred all the Europeans whom they got hold of, and then marched towards Delhi to join the mutineers there, who had already hailed Bahadur Shah, the titular Mogul Emperor, grandson of Shah Alam II, as their king. The Mutiny soon spread like a wild fire over the whole of India. The Sepoys of Cawnpore mutined under Nana Sahib, those of Oudh and Rohilkhand under the Begums of Oudh and many Talukdars, while the Sepoys of Central India rose under Rani of Jhansi and Tantia Topi, a shrewd Mahratta Brahmin. The English were, however, equal to the occasion. They succeeded in putting down the risings in the different provinces without much difficulty. As a result of the Sepoy Mutiny, India passed from the hands of the English East India Company to those of

the Crown in the person of Queen Victoria, the assumption of whose sovereignty was announced to the people of this country on the 1st November, 1858, by a Proclamation. The Proclamation declared that the Queen would govern this country through the Secretary of State for India and the Governor-General who should henceforth be known by the additional title of Viceroy or the representative of the sovereign. It further declared the principles of British rule to be adopted by the Queen in governing this country.

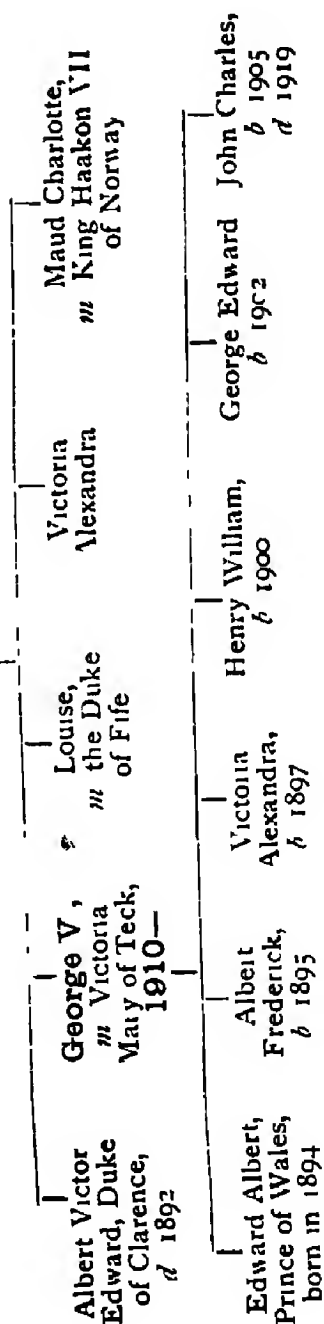
Lord Canning accordingly became the first Viceroy. In his Viceroyalty the High Courts were established at the Presidency towns. Of the several Viceroys that succeeded Canning, we must mention the names of Lord Northbrook, Lord Lytton, Lord Ripon, Lord Dufferin and Lord Curzon. During the Viceroyalty of Lord Northbrook, Emperor Edward VII who was then Prince of Wales, visited this country. The Indians showed their heartfelt loyalty to their future Emperor. The administration of Lord Lytton saw the annexation of Beluchistan to British India, as the result of the Second Afghan War. Shortly after this the British Resident at Cabul was assassinated, and the third Afghan War broke out, which was, however, brought to a successful end by Lord Ripon. Lord Ripon was a liberal ruler, and he introduced the system of Self-Government, and repealed the Vernacular Press Act by which his predecessor, Lord Lytton, had imposed certain

restrictions on the vernacular journals. The Viceroyalty of Lord Dufferin is memorable for the annexation of Burma to British India. Lord Dufferin celebrated the Golden Jubilee of the Queen in 1887 to commemorate the completion of the fiftieth year of her reign. Lord Curzon appointed a University Commission which resulted in the passing of the Universities Act of 1904, which enabled the Indian Universities to introduce the new system of imparting education to the Indian boys and youths. It was in the Viceroyalty of Lord Curzon that the beloved Queen died on January 22, 1901, to the utmost regret of her Indian subjects.

SOVEREIGNS OF THE HOUSE OF SAXE-COBURG OR WINDSOR, 1901—

Edward VII,

/// Alexandra,
daughter of
Christian IX
of Denmark,
1901-1910.



THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



Edward VII

CHAPTER XIII

England under the House of Saxe-Coburg or Windsor

1 **Edward VII** (1901-1910).—Albert Edward, the eldest son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, succeeded his mother at the good old age of sixty, under the title of Edward VII, on January, 22, 1901. With the accession of Edward VII to the throne of England, the House of Hanover or Brunswick came to an end in the direct male line. The new dynasty to which Edward belongs was known, until the outbreak of the Great European War, as the dynasty of Saxe-Coburg, for his father had been the Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, a small duchy in the German Empire. After the outbreak of the Great European War, the name of the dynasty has been changed to "House of Windsor", ^{The House of Windsor} in order to get rid of the German association, Windsor being the name of an English royal residence from the time of William the Conqueror.

The reign of Edward VII lasted for only nine years. His coronation which had been fixed for June, 26, 1902, had to be postponed for nearly a month and a half in consequence of his sudden and serious illness. On November, 1, 1902, the king assumed the amended title, "*Edward VII, by the* ^{Edward's new title} *Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of Faith, Emperor of India.*"

Edward VII. was a very popular king, and was widely known for his good nature, genial temper and kindness of heart. He had a thorough knowledge of every part of his vast Empire, for, during the life-time of his mother, he visited India and several colonial states owing allegiance to England. He also used to pay friendly visits to the rulers of other European countries.

His character

Edward won the title of "the Peace-Maker of the World," as he worked hard till the end of his life not only to establish amicable relations of Britain with foreign powers, but also to promote the general peace of the world.

Edward the Peace Maker

It was he who successfully brought the Boer War which had still been dragging on, to an end by the Peace of Vereeniging in 1902, by which the two Boer Republics came under the British Crown. In 1904, an Anglo-French Agreement was signed, by which France recognised the British occupation of Egypt, and the boundary disputes between the two nations in the different parts of the world were settled. In 1905, a Treaty of Alliance was made between England and Japan to secure peace in Eastern Asia and in India. In 1907, a friendly understanding between England and Russia was also arrived at over certain questions relating to Persia and Afghanistan.

Ministers of Edward VII.—When Edward came to the throne, Lord Salisbury, the Leader of the Conservative or Unionist Party, was the Prime Minister. In 1902, he resigned office, and was succeeded by Mr.

Arthur Balfour, a nephew of Lord Salisbury. In 1905, the Liberal Party gained power with Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman as Prime Minister. On the death of Sir Henry in 1908, Mr. Asquith became the Liberal Leader and Prime Minister. Mr Lloyd George, the present Prime Minister, became Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Asquith Ministry.

South African Settlement—The Peace of Vereeniging, among other things, provided that Self-government should be given to the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies as early as possible. In 1906, Self-government was granted to the Transvaal. In the following year, the privilege was extended to the Orange River State. In 1909, Mr Asquith ^{Union of South Africa} passed the South Africa Act which enabled Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange River State to unite themselves under the title of United South Africa. In 1910, the first Union Parliament was opened at Capetown by the king's brother, the Duke of Connought.

Home Government of Edward VII—The most important measure passed in the reign of Edward VII. was the Old Age Pensions ^{The Old Age Pensions Act, 1908} Act of 1908, which granted a pension of five shillings a week to every person in the British Isles, that was over seventy years of age and had no money. The passing of this beneficent piece of legislation led to the increase of the national expenditure.

During the administration of Mr. Balfour, Mr Joseph Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, urged the

abolition of Free Trade and advocated the System of Protection in a modified form, better known as the Tariff Reform. Duties were to be levied on all foreign imports, except raw materials, but some preference should be given to the Colonies in their commerce with Great Britain. Chamberlain believed that the imposition of import duties would favour the growth of British industry and agriculture, while his *Colonial Preference* would bind the Colonies closer to the Mother Country. Chamberlain soon succeeded in getting several supporters of his policy, but he met with vehement opposition from the Liberals who stood by the system of Free Trade, and contended that a tax on imports would increase the cost of living. The fierce controversy over the Tariff Question led to the fall of the Balfour Ministry.

The short reign of Edward was also memorable for the organisation of a large Labour Party and of the Suffragette Movement. Before the year 1906, only a few members who undertook to represent Labour, had seats in the Parliament. But a new feature in the Parliamentary election of 1906 was the return of a distinct and considerable Labour Party, pledged to support a policy of Social Reform. Some of the eminent English women demanded admission into the British Parliament along with the right of voting at the time of general elections. Their appearance at public meetings and in certain public places gave rise to many scenes of disorder.

The reign was also noteworthy for the fierce political controversy between the Liberal Ministry of King Edward and the House of Lords. In

1909, Mr. Lloyd George, the Chancellor ^{The Liberals and the Lords} of the Exchequer, introduced his famous

Budget by which he proposed to raise a greater amount of taxes from the rich than they had formerly paid. The House of Lords not only rejected the Budget

but also claimed the right to refer the question to the electors. The Parliament was consequently dissolved,

and a General Election was held in 1910. The result of

the Election was the return of more Liberal members than Unionists. When the new Parliament met, the

House of Lords was forced to accept the Budget of 1909. Meanwhile the Liberals carried certain resolutions

through the House of Commons, called

the Veto Resolutions, which declared ^{The Veto Resolutions} that the House of Lords had no right of

interference in matters of taxation, and that their right of veto or power to stop laws should be limited to a

certain extent. The dispute over the resolutions was,

however, put a stop to, for the time being, by the sudden death of the King, which took place on May, 6, 1910.

Material Progress under Edward VII.—Under Edward VII. Great Britain made wonderful progress.

His short reign is remarkable for many great scientific inventions. In this reign, Marconi, an ingenious

Italian, invented an apparatus by which

he succeeded in sending wireless mes-

sages. The British Government at once secured his

<sup>Wireless
Telegraphy.</sup>

services for establishing wireless stations at different points throughout the British Empire

In 1900, Count Zeppelin, a German General, built an air-ship by which one can easily navigate from

Aeroplanes one place to another through air As the Germans looked forward to its being of

enormous service in war times, England lost no time in making progress in Aerial Navigation, both for military and naval operations

Telephone, an instrument for producing sound at a distance, which was first invented by Graham Bell in '1876, came into general use throughout England during this reign

Motor industry, too, developed to a great extent in this reign. There was a remarkable increase in the number of motor-cars and motor-vehicles used for general, business and military purposes, while the electric railways and tramways, above ground and underground, multiplied to an enormous extent. They have all made it easier, quicker and cheaper to carry passengers and goods from one place to another.

Contemporaneous Indian Events—During the short reign of Edward VII., two able Viceroys administered the Indian dominions It has been said before that Queen Victoria died when Lord Curzon was the Viceroy of India. He remained in office till he resigned in 1905. On the 1st January, 1903, he held a grand *Durbar* at Delhi, in which Edward VII. was proclaimed Emperor of India. To strengthen the

North-West frontier of India, he created a new province, called the North-Western Frontier Province. In 1905, he carried out a Partition of Bengal, which caused wide-spread discontent among the Bengali-speaking population. In the viceroyalty of Lord Minto II, the successor of Lord Curzon, the Seditious Meetings Act and the Press Act were passed, which enabled the Government to face the troubles created by the Partition of Bengal.

2. **George V (1910—)**—Edward VII was succeeded by King George V., our present Sovereign. King George is the second son of Edward VII. He was forty-five years old when he came to the throne.

In 1877, His Majesty entered the Navy and served in various naval capacities till 1891. In 1892, he, on the death of his elder brother, became heir to the throne and took his seat in the House of Lords as Duke of York. In 1893, His Majesty was married to Princess Victoria Mary of Teck. On the death of Queen Victoria ^{His early life and character} in 1901, he succeeded his father as Duke of Cornwall, and, shortly after, started on a tour to several colonies, visiting among other places, Australia, New Zealand, Cape Colony and the Dominion of Canada. During his tour abroad, he opened in person, as representative of King Edward VII, the first Federated Parliament of the newly created Commonwealth of Australia, formed by the union of the five Australian Colonies and the island of Tasmania. On his return to England, he was given the title of Prince of Wales. In 1905, he,

with the Princess, honoured India with his august presence.

George V. is a frank, brave and capable ruler. Moreover, he is highly popular with his subjects.

Imperial Visits —A few weeks after his accession to the throne, His Majesty, accompanied by the Queen and royal children, visited Scotland, Ireland and Wales. On November, 11, 1911, Their Majesties left England for their second visit to India. On December, 12, 1911, an Imperial Durbar was held at Delhi amid scenes of unparalleled splendour and magnificence, where His Majesty received in person the homage and allegiance of the Indian Princes and people. After the Durbar at Delhi, when His Majesty was pleased to visit Calcutta, the local University presented an Address of Welcome to him. In reply, His Majesty said :

"Six years ago I sent from England to India a message of sympathy. To-day in India I give to India the watchword of hope. On every side I trace the signs and stirrings of new life. Education has given you hope ; and through better and higher education you will build up higher and better hopes. It is my wish that there may be spread over the land a net-work of Schools and Colleges, from which will go forth manly and useful citizens, able to hold their own in industries and agriculture and all the vocations in life. And it is my wish, too, that the homes of my Indian Subjects may be brightened and their labour sweetened by the spread of knowledge with all that follows in its

THE INDIAN BOYS' HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



The Imperial Durbar at Delhi

train, a higher level of thought, of comfort, and of health. „It is through education that my wish will be fulfilled, and the cause of education in India will ever be very close to my heart” On the eve of his departure from India, His Majesty wrote to his Prime Minister, *“Not only in Bombay, Delhi and Calcutta, but in every other part of the Country where the Queen and I have been, all classes, races, and creeds have united in receiving us with unmistakable signs of enthusiasm and affection”*. On February 4, 1912, Their Majesties returned to England.

Ministers of George V—When George V came to the throne, Mr Asquith, the leader of the Liberal Party, was the Prime Minister. After the outbreak of the Great European War, Mr Asquith, in deference to public opinion which had grown anxious for the control of munitions, formed a Coalition Ministry in May, 1915. The New Ministry provided for the admission of eight Unionists and one representative of the Labour Party to the Cabinet. A special feature of the Coalition Government was the establishment of a new Ministry of Munitions. Mr. Lloyd George who had been the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Liberal Ministry, now became the Minister of Munitions. The Coalition Government of Mr. Asquith, which, however, failed to prosecute the war with sufficient vigour, came to an end in December, 1916. After the resignation of Mr. Asquith, the King asked Mr. Lloyd George who is one

The Liberal
Ministry of Mr
Asquith, 1908-1915

The Coalition
Ministry, 1915-
1916

of the most active Liberal politicians of the day, to form a ministry. The new Ministry of Mr. Lloyd George, known as the National Ministry, also secured the support of the Unionists and the adhesion of the Labour Party. A special feature of the National Ministry was the introduction of a small War Cabinet for the vigorous and successful prosecution of the war

The National
Ministry of Mr
Lloyd George
1916

Home Government of George V — The first important act passed in the reign of George V is the Parliament Act of 1911, by which all Money Bills, if not passed by the House of Lords without amendment, and other Public Bills, if passed by the House of Commons in three successive sessions and rejected each time by the House of Lords, shall become law without their concurrence, provided the royal assent is signified. The Act also limited the maximum duration of Parliament to five years instead of seven. In the same year Mr. Lloyd George introduced the famous National Insurance Bill which, after a strong opposition, became law. The Act provides for compulsory insurance against loss of health and unemployment by all workers of either sex in the British Isles, with certain exceptions, between the ages of

The National
Insurance Act,
1911

sixteen and seventy, and whose wages do not amount to more than £160 a year, on a small weekly contribution from their pay. The benefits include free medical treatment and payments during sickness, disablement and unemployment for a limited number of weeks per

year. In 1914, after the outbreak of the Great European War, the Defence of the Realm Act was passed, which empowered the King in Council to make regulations during the war for the defence of the realm.

*The Defence of the
Realm Act, 1914*

The life of the Parliament, which would have expired in 1915, was extended by successive enabling Acts from five years to eight. A few days before the dissolution of the Parliament, which took place on November, 25, 1918, an Act, known as the Women Members of Parliament Act, was passed rapidly and without opposition through both the Houses of Parliament.

*The Women
Members of
Parliament
Act, 1918*

It secured to women of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland the same opportunity of entering Parliament as is afforded to men.

The Irish Affairs—We have seen that Ireland has never been content with English rule. For the last fifty years the majority of the Irish people are demanding Home Rule for Ireland, that is, they want to establish a Parliament in Dublin to manage their own affairs. To satisfy their demands, Mr. Gladstone, the far-famed Prime Minister of Queen Victoria, twice attempted to carry the Home Rule Bill through the Parliament, but failed owing to a strong opposition of the Unionist Party, which, however, governed the country till 1905, when the Liberals came back to office mainly through the support of the Irish Nationalist and Labour Parties. As 'Home Rule for Ireland' is a part of the Liberal programme, Mr. Asquith, the Liberal

Prime Minister of George V , introduced the Irish Home Rule Bill in the House of Commons on April 11, 1912, which provided for the establishment of a Parliament at Dublin with an Executive responsible to it. During the Parliamentary session of 1913, the House of Commons had twice passed and the House of Lords had twice rejected the Bill. In 1914, the Bill was again brought in and passed by the House of Commons. According to the provisions of the Parliament Act, the Royal Assent was then given on September, 18, 1914, to the Irish Home Rule Bill. By a Suspensory Act, passed by both the Houses on the same date, the operation of the Home Rule Act has been suspended until the termination of the Great European War or until such further date as may be fixed by Orders in Council. In April, 1916, a section of the Irish people, being secretly helped by Germany, broke into a serious revolt, but it was easily put down by the British Government.

The Great European War, 1914-1919 —The reign of George V. saw the outbreak and the termination of the greatest war that the world has ever seen. Never before in the history of the world has war forced into arms so many nations and races of mankind. Few other wars in the history of the world have been fought on such an elaborate scale.

Since the Franco-Prussian War which had deprived France of her two beautiful provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, Germany had been cherishing the grand idea of founding a world-wide empire for herself. With this

object in view she had been, for many years, making secret preparations on a gigantic scale and looking for an opportunity to strike a decisive blow against the neighbouring rival states. This opportunity, however, presented itself when, on the 28th of

June, 1914, the Crown Prince of Austria Causes that led to the war was assassinated at Serajevo, in Bosnia,

by a young Servian who was a subject of Austria. Austria, an ally of Germany, made this murder a pretext for invading the little kingdom of Servia. Russia now came forward to defend Servia and declared war against Austria. France, bound by a previous treaty to assist Russia, also declared war against Austria, whereupon Germany declared war against Russia and against France, and seized the little neutral kingdom of Luxemburg. Germany then called upon Belgium, another neutral country, to allow German troops to pass through her, in order to be able to deliver a sudden attack on France. She also announced her intention that she would recompense Belgium for this neighbourly concession. Belgium, however, refused to sacrifice her honour and her sovereign rights. On the 4th August, 1914, the German army crossed the Belgian frontier and invaded the country. It was because Germany had violated the neutrality of Belgium that Great Britain took up arms against Germany 'in defence of human freedom and the rights of small nations'. Shortly after the outbreak of the war, Germany succeeded in dragging Turkey on her side, prompted by 'the hope that she might cause thereby the maximum

embarrassment in the East to her chief enemy, Great Britain'

In England, the direction of the war was first entrusted to Lord Kitchener who had already won a name in Egypt, India and South-Africa as an able soldier and good administrator. In June 1916, Lord Kitchener was drowned while on his way to Russia. After his death the direction of the war was entrusted temporarily to Mr Asquith. It was soon transferred to a small War Cabinet with Mr Lloyd George at its head. At the commencement of the war, Sir John French was sent out with a large British army to ward off the German advances in Belgium and France. At the same time the British Grand Fleet was placed under the command of Admiral Sir John Jellicoe and Vice-Admiral Sir David Beatty. In 1915, Sir John French retired from the field, and was succeeded by Sir Douglas Haig.

The English
Generals and
Admirals

In France, General Joffre was at the outset appointed Commander-in-chief of the French armies in the field. In 1916, General Nivelle succeeded Marshal Joffre in the field. In 1917, Nivelle retired from the field and was succeeded by General Petain. In March 1918, the famous French General, named Marshal Foch, became the Commander-in-chief of the Allied troops on the Western Front, and it was his wonderful genius and masterly strategy that brought the war to such a speedy and victorious termination.

The French
Generals

During 1914, the first year of the war, Germany overran the kingdom of Belgium, destroyed a large number of her beautiful and historic buildings, laid waste several towns and villages, and committed terrible atrocities on the Belgian civil population. The German army then entered the French territory and advanced within ten miles of Paris, but it was severely defeated on the banks of the Marne by the combined British and French army. After this defeat the Germans began to retire, crossed the river Aisne, and picked up a strong position on its north bank. Then began what is known as the *trench warfare*. On both sides numerous trenches were dug, where they settled down during winter.

The Western
Front

The battle of
the Marne

On the Eastern Front, Russia invaded East Prussia and captured some small Prussian towns. The Russian forces were, however, defeated with great loss by the German General Hindenburg at the battle of Tannenberg. Shortly after this, the Germans invaded Russian Poland and advanced upon Warsaw, its capital. Meanwhile, the Russians entered Galicia, defeated the Austrians in every engagement and reached the crest of the Carpathians. The two expeditions that were sent by Austria to punish the kingdom of Servia, were also driven out with immense loss.

The Eastern
Front

At the commencement of the war with Turkey, Great Britain landed a strong detachment of British troops in the Gallipoli Peninsula, and sent a successful

expedition to Mesopotamia. Egypt, too, threw off the nominal allegiance to Turkey, and was declared a British Protectorate. The Khedive was deposed, and Prince Hussein succeeded the Ex-Khedive with the title of Sultan.

During the first year of the war, the Allied forces captured the German colonies of
 Loss of German Colonies Togoland in Africa, the Samoan and Solomon Islands and the Bismarck Archipelago lying in the Pacific Ocean. Japan which also declared war against Germany, captured the port of Kiau-Chau in China, which had been in German possession since 1897.

The first year of the war is also memorable for the
 The battle off the Falkland Isles great naval battle off the Falkland Isles, in which a British squadron attacked and totally crushed a German squadron. It shattered the German hopes of carrying a successful war on British commerce by raiding cruisers. One of these cruisers, the *Emden*, which escaped from Kiau-Chau, sank some British ships in the Indian Ocean and bombarded the coast of Madras, but it was afterwards caught by an Australian cruiser, named the *Sydney*.

During 1915, the second year of the war, the Germans gained no notable success on the Western
 The Western Front Front. By the use of Asphyxiating gases they inflicted some insignificant defeats on the Allied forces. In Artois and Champagne, the British and the French attacked the German position, took many thousands of

prisoners and gained some ground. In this year, the German Airships and Zeppelins made a raid on London, Yarmouth, King's Lynn and other Norfolk villages, as well as on Paris, and threw bombs on the civil population. In Belgium, Nurse Edith Cavell, "the Florence Nightingale of Belgium", was shot by order of the German Court-martial, for harbouring fugitive British, French and Belgian soldiers. In the beginning of this year, the British patrolling squadron under Vice-Admiral Sir David Beatty intercepted a German squadron consisting of four battle-cruisers, and pursued the enemy to within seventy miles of Heligoland. One of the German cruisers was sunk, and two others were seriously damaged.

The battle off
the Dogger
Bank

On the Eastern Front, the Russians, at the beginning of the year, were at the height of their offensive. The Austrians appeared to be almost beaten.

But a few months later, the Austrian forces, reorganised by the Germans, not only compelled the Russians to withdraw from all their conquests in Galicia, but also entered the Russian soil. Meanwhile, two German armies, one under Von Hindenburg and the second under Von Mackensen, began to converge on Warsaw which, however, soon fell into their hands. After the fall of Warsaw, the Germans advanced a hundred miles beyond the city, but, with the approach of winter, they had to cease their operations for the time being.

The Western
Front

The Austrians under the guidance of German generals sent a third expedition against Servia. This

time the little kingdom was almost reduced. In the meantime, Bulgaria entered into the war as the partner of Germany, Austria and Turkey, and attacked Servia from the south. Just at this time, a division of the Allied troops landed at Salonika, in Greece, to help the Servians. The Bulgarians committed horrible atrocities on the civil population of Servia, and the sufferings of the people knew no bounds.

We have seen that an expedition was sent to Mesopotamia by the India Government in the first year of the war, which took Basra, a town on the head of the Persian Gulf. In the beginning of 1915, the British and Indian troops gained a series of victories and advanced within sight of Bagdad, but towards the close of the year, the British and the Indian troops had to retreat to Kut-el-Amara, where they were closely besieged by the Turks.

A Franco-British fleet was sent in the beginning of the year 1915, which bombarded the Dardanelles forts, and an Allied force under the command of Sir Ivan Hamilton effected landings on both sides of the Dardanelles.

Another notable event in the second year of the war, was the entry of Italy by formal declaration of hostilities against Austria, Germany, Turkey and Bulgaria. The Italians attacked the Austrians both in the Trentino and on the eastern frontier towards Trieste. When Bulgaria declared war against Servia, Italy prepared herself for joint action with France and Great Britain in Servia.

During the second year of the war, the German colony of South West Africa was captured by the British

During 1916, the tide of success in the Great War definitely ebbed from the side of Germany and flowed in favour of the Allies. In the early part of the year, the Germans, on the Western Front, launched their great and costly offensive against Verdun, but could not take it. Then began the great Franco-British offensive on both banks of the Somme, where the British and the French, with stubborn courage, defeated the enemy and took a number of their fortifications. On the Southern Front, the Austrians pushed aggressively down into the Trentino and wrested some cities from Italy. Towards the middle of the year, the German High Sea Fleet was brought to an engagement with the British Fleet off the Jutland Bank, near the coast of Denmark, which confirmed the British command of the North Sea.

On the Eastern Front, the Russians advanced once more against the Austrians, but they were again defeated with great slaughter. In Asia Minor, the Russians gained some success against Turkey. In Servia, the Bulgarian and the Austrian advance had not only forced the remnant of the Servian army through Albania to the coast, but had driven the British and the French Relief Forces, based on Salonika, back over the Greek frontier and obliged them to take up there purely a defensive

The Western
and the
Southern Front

The Eastern
Front

attitude for many months. But towards the close of the year, the British and the French Relief Forces enabled the Servians to retake Monastir.

The year 1916 saw the addition of Rumania as a fresh and active adherent of the Allies and the formal declaration of war by Germany on Portugal.

In this year Turkey gained some success against the Allied forces in the Gallipoli Peninsula. In Mesopotamia, the besieged British and Indian forces under General Townshend, at Kut-el-Amara, had to surrender to the Turks.

In February 1917, Germany presented a note to all the neutral countries declaring her intention to sink at sight any merchant or passenger vessel trading with British ports. This proud note created intense indignation in America. She now severed all diplomatic relations with Germany and declared war on her. All along the Western Front, there were severe fightings, and the British and the French gained important fortifications. The difficult and complex situation on the Eastern Front, was cleared up to a certain extent by the declaration of war made by Greece against Bulgaria and Germany. But, in the meantime, a revolution broke out in Russia. Tsar Nicholas II. was deposed, and a provisional government was set up there. Russia, thus weakened by internal revolution, signed a humiliating treaty with Germany. The signing of peace between Russia and Germany left Rumania completely isolated and helpless. She, too, signed a treaty and withdrew from the war.

The collapse of Russia and Rumania enabled Germany to despatch millions of her troops that had so long been engaged on the Eastern Front to the West. She now put forth all her strength to capture Paris and to force her way to Calais before America could land her troops in France

In 1918, the Germans once again, as in 1914, were within a few miles of Paris which was daily bombarded for a considerable period by long-range guns. Nearly all the Allied gains achieved on the banks of the Somme were lost. The American troops, however, landed in France just in the nick of time.

From the commencement of the Great War the Allies maintained a unity of purpose, but they lacked a unity of command. The Allied reverses in the early part of the war, are partly due to this divided command. The Allies, however, now acted wisely in placing their respective armies at the direction and disposition of the veteran French General, Marshal Foch. Guided by his genius and masterly strategy, the Allied armies not only succeeded in hurling the Germans back, but before they could recover from the blow, the Allies struck them again and again and compelled them to retire.

While the German armies were staggering under these rapid blows on the Western Front, troubles broke out in other directions. In September, 1918, the Allied forces on the Salonika Front attacked the German and Bulgarian armies with such vehemence, that Bulgaria

was forced to surrender unconditionally a fortnight later.

Turkey which had been fighting for the last four years the battles of Germany in Egypt, the Gallipoli Peninsula, Armenia, and Mesopotamia, now being defeated by the British in Palestine and Mesopotamia, and cut off by the surrender of Bulgaria from Germany, also surrendered to the Allies on October 31st, 1918, and three days later, her example was followed by Austria which had recently sustained a crushing defeat at the hands of Italy. Germany, thus deserted by all her partners in the war, had no other course open but to surrender to the Allies by an armistice signed on November, 11, 1918. After the unconditional surrender of Germany a revolution broke out there, the Kaiser was deposed, and a Republic proclaimed. The Emperor of Austria, too, abdicated the throne, and a Republic was set up there.

The treaty of Versailles which brought the Great European War to an end, was signed on June, 28th, 1919.

The following is a summary of the Peace Treaty :—

"A League of Nations will be established with its seat at Geneva. Apparently nothing is stated as regards Germany's membership, but any State, Dominion or Colony may be admitted with the consent of two-thirds of the Assembly of the League. The members are pledged to submit matters of dispute to arbitration, and a Permanent Court of International Justice will be established."

"Under the Section dealing with Germany's new boundaries, it is provided that the Franco-German boundary will be as in July, 1870, while additionally, provision is made for the cession to France of full ownership of the coal mines in the Saar Basin. Alsace-Lorraine will be ceded to France free of all responsibilities for German debt and payment for German buildings, etc. To Belgium Germany will cede Eupen and Malmedy. Luxemburg ceases to be a member of the German Zollverein or Customs Union. On the east bank of the Rhine, Germany may maintain no fortifications or armed forces within fifty kilometres of the river. The whole of the west bank of the Rhine, as well as the bridgeheads, remains temporarily in the hands of the Allies as security for the fulfilment of the provisions of the treaty. Evacuation of that territory will be completed in fifteen years provided all proceeds smoothly. The territory to be ceded to Denmark will be settled later on. The fortifications of Heligoland will be destroyed at German expense. On the east, Germany cedes Posen to Poland, and Dantzic becomes a free city, the fair treatment of the Poles being assured by a High Commissioner and International Commission."

"Outside Europe, Germany renounces all rights, titles and privileges alike in territory formerly her own and in the territory of the Allied and Associated Powers to those Powers collectively and undertakes to accept the arrangements they may devise. In China, she forfeits all interest in the Boxer indemnities and her Port

concessions In Morocco, she forfeits all privileges resulting from the Algeciras and other conventions. In West Africa, she indemnifies France for the wrongs and extortions of the years which preceded the war."

"Under the Military and Naval Section, Germany's land effectives are limited to 100,000 and her Navy to a small fleet of 18 vessels of different types. No Submarines are included, and similarly Germany will not be allowed to maintain an Air Force after October, 1919."

"Under the heading of reparation and restitution, Germany is compelled 'to accept the responsibility for causing all the loss and damage' which the Allies and their subjects have suffered, but the Allies 'recognise that the resources of Germany are not adequate to make complete reparation' Compensation will be paid, however, to civilians under seven comprehensive heads and in addition, Germany, will at once pay all Belgium's war borrowings from the Allies and, within two years, will pay to the Allies one thousand million pounds sterling in either gold, goods, ships or other specific forms of payment Further, an Inter-Allied Reparation Commission will inform Germany not later than May 1, 1921, of her total obligation to pay."

"The Allies will publicly arraign the Kaiser in London before an International Court of Judges for a supreme offence against international morality and the sanctity of treaties "

Contemporaneous Indian Events.—The administration of Lord Hardinge II who succeeded Lord Minto in 1910, will ever be remembered for the advent in person of Their Most Gracious Majesties, the King-Emperor George V. and the Queen-Empress Mary, in India. A magnificent Durbar was held at Delhi on the 12th December, 1911, in which Their Majesties received in person the loyalty of the Indian princes and the people alike. His Gracious Majesty, on this historic occasion, announced the removal of the capital of British India from Calcutta to Delhi and pleased the

Advent of
Emperor George V
and Queen
Empress Mary in
India

Bengali-speaking people by annulling the Partition of Bengal. Bengal has once more been raised to a Presidency with a Governor aided by a Council.

The Viceroyalty of Lord Hardinge II. also saw the outbreak of the Great European War. One of the special features of this great war is the prominent part taken in it by India. The rulers of the Native States at once rallied, with one accord, to the defences of the Empire, and offered their personal services and the resources of their States for the war.

India also sent her native soldiers to fight on European battle-fields. The first regiments from India reached France just in the nick of time, and took an important share in the heavy fightings on the Western Front. The King-Emperor being highly pleased with the bravery of his Indian troops, ordered that, in future, the Victoria Cross, the highest of all rewards for bravery,

Part played by
India in the Great
European War

shall be given to the brave Indian soldiers, and several of them have won this medal. The operations in Mesopotamia and Palestine were solely conducted by the forces sent by the India Government. The people of India also supported the Government with one heart, and contributed a large sum of money and raised several funds to help the distressed Belgians and the wounded soldiers in the various theatres of the war.

In 1916, Lord Hardinge II. was succeeded by Lord Chelmsford, our present Viceroy. In April, 1918, he convened a conference of the Indian princes and people at Delhi 'to reaffirm the abiding loyalty of the Indian people and their resolute will to prosecute to their utmost ability the war which Germany had wantonly provoked and been ruthlessly waging against the freedom of the world.' The Viceroy, in this conference, aptly described in the following words the part played by India in this Great War. "If the war were to stop to-morrow," says the Viceroy, "the tale of India's share in the great war would form no unworthy page in her glorious annals. Her sons have fought not without glory on every front. In East Africa, in Palestine and in Mesopotamia they have borne the victorious laurels."

For the valuable services rendered by India in this war, she was allowed to send two representatives to the Peace Conference at Versailles to settle the final peace terms.

The administration of Lord Chelmsford is also remarkable for the preparation of a scheme of Constitutional Reforms by him in conjunction with Mr. Montague, the present Secretary of State for India. A bill embodying the scheme has now been introduced into the Parliament.

His administration is also memorable for the outbreak and the victorious conclusion of the fourth Afghan War

APPENDIX A.

BRITISH SOVEREIGNS.

I. The Anglo-Saxon Line or the House of Egbert.

- | | |
|---|------------|
| 1. Egbert (<i>the Founder</i>), | 827—839. |
| 2. Ethelwulf (<i>son of Egbert</i>), | 839—858. |
| 3. Ethelbald (<i>son of Ethelwulf</i>), | 858—860. |
| 4. Ethelbert (<i>son of Ethelwulf</i>), | 860—866. |
| 5. Ethelred I. (<i>son of Ethelwulf</i>), | 866—871. |
| 6. Alfred the Great (<i>son of Ethelwulf</i>), | 871—901. |
| 7. Edward I (<i>son of Alfred</i>), | 901—925. |
| 8. Athelston (<i>son of Edward I</i>), | 925—940. |
| 9. Edmund (<i>son of Edward I</i>), | 940—946. |
| 10. Edred (<i>son of Edward I</i>), | 946—955. |
| 11. Edwy (<i>son of Edmund</i>), | 955—959. |
| 12. Edgar (<i>son of Edmund</i>), | 959—975. |
| 13. Edward II (<i>son of Edgar</i>), | 975—979. |
| 14. Ethelred II. (<i>son of Edgar</i>), | 979—1016. |
| 15. Edmund Ironside (<i>Son of Ethelred II.</i>), | 1016—1017. |

II. The Danish Line.

- | | |
|--|------------|
| 1. Canute the Great, | 1017—1035. |
| 2. Harold I. (<i>son of Canute</i>), | 1035—1040. |
| 3. Hardicanute (<i>son of Canute</i>), | 1040—1042. |

III. The Restored Saxon Line.

- | | |
|---|------------|
| 1. Edward the Confessor (<i>son of Ethelred II.</i>), | 1042—1066. |
| 2. Harold II. (<i>son of Earl of Godwin</i>), | 1066. |

IV. The Norman Line.

1. William I. (*the Conqueror*), 1066—1087.
2. William II. (*son of William I.*), 1087—1100.
3. Henry I (*son of William I.*), 1100—1135.
4. Stephen (*grandson of William I.*), 1135—1154.

V. The Plantagenet or Angevin Line.

1. Henry II. (*grandson of Henry I.*), 1154—1189.
2. Richard I (*son of Henry II.*), 1189—1199.
3. John (*son of Henry II.*), 1199—1216.
4. Henry III (*son of John*), 1216—1272.
5. Edward I (*son of Henry III*), 1272—1307.
6. Edward II (*son of Edward I*), 1307—1327.
7. Edward III. (*son of Edward II*), 1327—1377.
8. Richard II. (*grandson of Edward III.*),
1377—1399.

VI. The House of Lancaster.

1. Henry IV. (*cousin of Richard II.*), 1399—1413.
2. Henry V. (*son of Henry IV.*), 1413—1422.
3. Henry VI (*son of Henry V.*), 1422—1461.

VII. The House of York.

1. Edward IV. (*son of Richard, Duke
of York*), 1461—1483.
2. Edward V. (*son of Edward IV.*), 1483.
3. Richard III. (*brother of Edward IV.*),
1483—1485.

VIII The House of Tudor.

1. Henry VII. (*son of Edmund Tudor*), 1485—1509.
2. Henry VIII. (*son of Henry VII*), 1509—1547.
3. Edward VI (*son of Henry VIII.*), 1547—1553.
4. Mary (*daughter of Henry VIII.*), 1553—1558
5. Elizabeth (*daughter of Henry VIII*) 1558—1603.

IX The House of Stuart

- 1 James I. (*son of Mary, Queen of Scots*), 1603-1625
- 2 Charles I (*son of James I*), 1625-1649.
- Interregnum, 1649-1660

X The Restored House of Stuart

1. Charles II (*son of Charles I*), 1660-1685.
- 2 James II (*son of Charles I*), 1685-1688.
- 3 William III and Mary (*son-in-law and daughter of James II*), 1688-1702.
4. Anne (*daughter of James II*), 1702-1714.

XI. The House of Hanover or Brunswick

- 1 George I (*great-grandson of James I*), 1714-1727
2. George II (*son of George I*), 1727-1760
- 3 George III (*grandson of George II.*), 1760-1820.
4. George IV (*son of George III*), 1820-1830
- 5 William IV (*son of George III*), 1830-1837.
- 6 Victoria (*niece of William IV*), 1837-1901.

XII The House of Saxe-Coburg or Windsor

1. Edward VII. (*son of Queen Victoria*), 1901-1910.
2. George V (*son of Edward VII.*), 1910-

APPENDIX B.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS OF INDIA
AND ENGLAND

<i>Famous Pathan Emperors.</i>	<i>Contemporary English Sovereigns.</i>
1. Muhammad Ghori, } 1194-1206 }	Richard I and King John
2. Kutabuddin, } 1206-1210 }	King John
3. Altamash, 1210-1236	King John and Henry III
4. Razia, 1236-1239	.
5. Nasiruddin Mahmud, } 1246-1266 }	Henry III
6. Balban, 1266-1287. ..	Henry III and Edward I
7. Jelaluddin Khilji, } 1288-1296 }	Edward I
8. Alauddin Khilji, } 1296-1316 }	Edward I and Edward II
Ghiasuddin Tughlak, } 1322-1325 }	Edward II
10. Muhammad Tughlak, } 1325-1351 }	Edward II and Edward III
11. Feroz Tughlak, } 1351-1388 }	Edward III and Richard II
12. Mahmud Tughlak, } 1393-1412 }	Richard II and Henry IV.
13. Khizir Khan, 1414-1421	Henry V.
14. Bahlul Lodi, } 1451-1488 }	Henry VI, Edward IV, Edward V, Richard III. and Henry VII.
15. Ibrahim Lodi, } 1516-1526 }	Henry VIII.

- | | | |
|-----|-----------------------|-------------|
| 16. | Sher Shah, 1540-1545. | Henry VIII. |
| 17 | Adil Shah, 1553-1556 | Queen Mary. |

*Mogul Emperors**Contemporary
English Sovereigns*

- | | | |
|-----|--|--|
| 1 | Babai, 1526—1530 | Henry VIII. |
| 2 | Humayun, 1530—1540, }
1555—1556 } | Henry VIII and
Queen Mary. |
| 3 | Akbar I, 1556—1605 | { Queen Mary, Queen
Elizabeth and James I |
| 4 | Jahangir, 1605—1627 | James I. and Charles I |
| 5 | Shah Jahan, 1628—1658 | Charles I. |
| 6. | Aurangzeb, or
Alamgir I. 1658-1707 | { Charles II, James II,
William III and Mary,
and Queen Anne |
| 7. | Bahadur Shāh, or
Shah Alam I, 1707-1712 } | .. Queen Anne. |
| 8 | Jahandai Shah, 1712 } | |
| 9 | Farrukh Seyai, }
1712-1719 } | Queen Anne and George I. |
| 10 | Rafi-ud-darjat, 1719 } | George I |
| 11 | Rafi-ud-daula, 1719 } | |
| 12. | Muhammad Shah, }
1719—1748 } | George I and George II. |
| 13. | Ahmad Shah, 1748— }
1754 } | .. George II |
| 14 | Alamgir II, 1754--1759 } | |
| 15. | Shah Alam II., }
1759—1806 } | George II and George III. |
| 16. | Akbar II, 1806-1827. | George III and George IV. |
| 17 | Bahadur Shah II, }
1827-1857 } | George IV, William
IV and Queen Victoria. |

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